

THE CHARITIES REVIEW

Volume IX

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Number 11

A Few More Fires.

There is no need of any one becoming especially alarmed because we refer to a few institution fires now and then. Our purpose is simply to make it perfectly plain that most of the damage done by these fires is due to the neglect of simple precautions which no board of trustees has any excuse for disregarding, whatever the expense involved. We note five fires this month, and two other institutions which are inviting fire and loss of life. Next month we shall have occasion to record at least two fires in institutions, the superintendent or trustees of which have read this page—unless these two institutions take precautions which they are not now doing. We are not joking.

The children's home of Marion county, Ind., containing thirty-five children, six of whom are practically helpless, is a wooden building with no fire-escapes, in a town where there is no fire department. There is no watchman at night. The manning of the hose which is provided on each floor would, in case of fire, devolve upon the four women who sleep in the building—provided the children were left to take care of themselves.

At the almshouse of Portland, Me., kerosene lamps are used exclusively in all the buildings, including the insane wards. If one of these lamps should explode or be broken, either by accident or design—

What will happen is this: The main building of the soldiers' orphans' school at Chester Springs, Pa., was destroyed by fire, December 1. The cause was *an exploding lamp* in one of the sleeping apartments. The building was an old wooden structure, and the flames swept through it so rapidly that practically nothing was saved, the occupants barely escaping with their lives. The fire occurred in the early evening. What might have happened had it been midnight the reader can easily surmise; there were 325 pupils, all under sixteen.

The workshop of the reformatory at St. Cloud, Minn., was partially gutted by fire December 13, the probable cause being an explosion of gasoline. The building was of stone, and the fire, which started in the second floor, did not get through the fireproof floors to the first floor, which contains a valuable engine plant. Still the loss was over \$30,000. The fire apparatus consisted of a small hose and tanks in the attic,

containing 2,800 barrels when full. These were quickly emptied.

Fire completely destroyed one of the buildings of St. Michael's orphan asylum in Pittsburgh on December 17. Loss, \$100,000.

The western Pennsylvania institute for the deaf and dumb, situated at Edgewood, was destroyed by fire December 14, in the afternoon. "There was strong insistence by every one upon the inadequacy of the water pressure." The local volunteer fire departments, with reels and trucks, were accordingly of no avail. A chemical from the neighborhood was helpless, and the engines sent from Pittsburgh could do little after their late arrival. The loss was something over \$100,000.

On December 16 fire was discovered in the nearly fireproof boiler-house of the industrial home school, located in the suburbs of Washington. An alarm was promptly sent and the fire department responded after a long and hard run. The nearest fire hydrant was over twelve hundred feet from the burning building. While the fire engine was being brought into position and this long line of hose laid, the employes of the institution were fighting the fire with a small hose and with buckets. A second building had caught by the time the fire department got a stream into play. Had there been more combustible material in the boiler-house, or a strong wind, or two minutes' longer delay in getting the water through the 1,200 feet of hose, the entire institution would have burned. Months ago the super-

intendent urged that a six-inch water main should be laid from the street, through the grounds, to the institution, and that fire hydrants be provided, but the money which it would have cost was needed elsewhere, and the provision against danger of loss of property and life by fire was deferred.

We sincerely trust the managers and superintendents of the institutions which, unless foreguarded, will be damaged by fire this month will take immediate steps to prevent the loss, before it is too late.

The Charity Ball.

A charity organization society in one of our western cities has been nearly disrupted over the question of having or not having an annual charity ball. The churches, at least a majority of them, opposed the ball. The "business" element of the society favored it. As a compromise, a course of lectures was given. On these there was a dead loss of \$97. Now the society has decided to try the annual ball again. In another western city, where it had been proposed to raise money for an orphan's home by this method, the Roman catholic church, through the coadjutor bishop of the diocese, requested its members to take no part in the ball. The church has, in fact, decided, at the Baltimore council, that no balls or dances whatever, public or otherwise, under the auspices of catholics for charity can be given.

Inability to support a charity without resorting to balls or fairs

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indicates, on the part of the public, either a serious ignorance of, or a more serious lack of confidence in, the charity to be aided. On the part of the managers of the charity it indicates either that they are afraid to put their work before the public on its merits, or else that from force of habit, having always relied on the ball, it has never occurred to them to do anything else. We are of the opinion that a charity which can not, after a fair trial, be maintained without resort to the ball or the fair would do well to close its doors. All but a very few of the great charity institutions of this country depend for their support entirely upon direct contributions, based upon concise business statements of aims, methods, and results. It is an unnecessary slur upon the intelligence and generosity of the average American community to assume that it will not support worthy charities without resort to fairs or balls. And it is not good sound business policy to attempt to supplement an income from direct contribution by any such scheme. The contributor who gives fifty dollars once a year will do it much more willingly if he knows he will not again be called upon at intervals during the year. It does not fool him that the second call comes as a request to buy tickets for a ball. On the other hand, we are convinced that the contributor who is reached only through those channels would, if equal energy was expended in presenting to him the merits of the charity for its own sake, prefer to

give his money to it directly rather than to buy the ticket he is now offered. The reason is, as every one concerned knows, that of the money and energy expended on a charity ball or fair only a portion can benefit the charity. The rest, the expense of dress, of advertising and conducting the ball, or of preparing articles for sale at the fair, and the time and annoyance of the scores of persons actively participating in the work, is a dead loss, so far as the charity is concerned. Societies which are afraid to intrust their work to the public strictly on its merits may look upon this excessive waste with some complacency. But those institutions which have a just ground for appeal to the public can not afford to let the money which is contributed in their name percolate through the spongy meshes of fairs or balls.

This is all aside from the fact that too often not even all the "gate receipts" get to the charity in whose name the entertainment is given. The charity ball, half of the receipts of which go to the charity and the other half to the management of the ball, is to be condemned absolutely as an imposition on the public. How often is this rumor, quoted from a daily paper at hand, too true: "The claim is made that some short-sport politicians of more or less bad reputations in financial matters and of no visible record for charity or Christianity have gained control of the ball, possibly by the usual methods of ballot-box stuffing, etc."

A course of lectures in behalf of

charity is not much better, as a financial enterprise, than a fair or a ball. The whole theory of such ventures, the theory of giving people a premium on their charity, is absolutely false and pernicious. It does not delude the man of sound business sense, and it does cut into the normal sources of direct support. Show a child saved from vicious or hopeless surroundings and placed in a good home, or a family restored from pauperism to honorable independence, or sickness or disease transformed into health, and the contributor will ask for no premiums.

**Company
Stores.**

The New Jersey bureau of labor statistics has gathered some facts relative to the existence of company stores in the state. Fifteen such institutions were found, and in every case an average of their prices for household necessities was obtained. Similar prices were obtained from other stores in the same neighborhood. As a result of a comparison, the statistician finds that on an average the person obliged to deal at a company store pays thirteen cents on the dollar more than if he could purchase where he pleased. The report calls attention to the evil caused by these stores. In many cases men have not for long periods received a dollar in cash, because when pay-day came they found their wages eaten up by the rent of the house or rooms owned by the company and by the bills they had contracted at the company store. There is a law in the state against these

stores, and it appears to be very stringent, but it can not be enforced owing to a technical defect. It is expected that the incoming legislature will take steps to cause the wiping out of these stores, and the statistics were gathered for this purpose. The glassworkers in South Jersey are the ones who are mostly obliged to patronize company stores. In that section it is said that less than forty in each 600 own their own homes, although they are classed as skilled laborers.

The writer found, last summer, a section on the coast of Maine where this system still prevails among lime burners and ice harvesters. There the companies had the effrontery to explain that the store system was used in order to protect the families of the employé, who otherwise would spend all his wages in drink [in prohibition Maine!] and leave his family destitute. So the sober man has practically to beg for whatever cash he wishes. Should he ask for money too often it is intimated that the company will not be able to keep him employed much longer. He pays at least twenty-five cents more on the dollar at the company store than elsewhere. The man who wishes to drink, on the other hand, goes to the store and buys on account [this is an actual instance] a sawbuck and saw, a plane, and a pair of trousers, total value about five dollars. He then goes a block down the street, sells the entire outfit for a dollar, and proceeds to the nearest "blind tiger" or open resort for whiskey.

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**Cuban Charity
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The men who are subject to this system in Maine are for the most part Americans, but thriftless and dispirited, and too much scattered to make effective organization practicable. As in New Jersey, the state legislature should interfere on their behalf.

Cuban Charity Problems.

Perhaps the greatest problem in the reorganization of Cuba is the education of the children. For instance, in Havana alone there are some 30,000, of whom only 5,000, it is said, are under any instruction. Doubtless in a comparatively short time a public school system will be established which will in large measure provide for these children. There still remains, however, the large class of destitute orphans who have become homeless through the ravages of the war. In a recent address in New York, Gen. William Ludlow, governor of Havana, said regarding these:

I think the island is itself capable of dealing with every problem, and it would deal with the problem of its destitute orphans in time; but time does not permit. Something should be done at once. To gather up, maintain, and subject to the possibilities of instruction this perfectly helpless class of orphans is one of the most important subjects to be attended to on the island. After the preliminary steps have been taken, after an organization has been completed and put under way, then the task should be intrusted to the island itself, the revenues of which are quite sufficient to maintain an educational establishment. What are lacking now are willing hands and workers in that particular field. I

should think that within a year all these otherwise unprovided-for orphans could be organized into domiciles or institutions, and those institutions turned over to the island for maintenance by the properly constituted authorities.

One point in General Ludlow's remarks deserves to be carefully emphasized—i. e., that no plans should be undertaken in the way of establishing institutional relief for children or adult Cubans which contemplate a permanent support from philanthropic people in the United States. Not only is the island, under normal circumstances, perfectly able to support such educational or charitable institutions as may be needed, but it is to be kept in mind that the easy conditions of life in Cuba make the need for institutional relief of any kind very much less than is the case in any part of the United States. Let the energy which might be expended in the establishment of large permanent institutions for these orphans be given rather to placing them in private homes, and within two or three years the children will have been largely reabsorbed into the general population. Of course, while doing this, temporary institutions may be necessary for their shelter. But should any number of permanent institutional homes be established, they would probably be promptly and continuously overcrowded. The certainty of these easy-going people to lean on any such support we may provide for them is illustrated by what General Ludlow said in this connection:

The Cuban lends himself very easily to conditions if he is helped. The difficulty we had was in sifting out appeals, and it was a bad problem. We found that some of the most prominent men, physicians and the like, were still sending their baskets to the relief stations for rations. We found doctors certifying to the necessities of a family, and asking for double the amount of rations, with the understanding that when the rations were drawn they were to get one-half. It is, therefore, desirable to reconstruct the method of disposition of funds for educational or philanthropic purposes; to keep it rather on the side of severity than on the side of over-indulgence, for fear of engrafting on their too easy minds the idea that they can be supported by charity rather than by any physical exercise. We have adopted that rule now by giving them only one-half, and it has already had a beneficial effect.

CITY AFFAIRS.

The Tramp Problem in Chicago. A committee of the associated charities of Chicago, after looking into the local aspects of the tramp problem, has reached a conclusion identical with that which students of the same subject reached in New York city long ago, that the system of giving free lodgings in the police stations aggravates rather than mitigates the evil. The wayfarers' lodge maintained by the public authorities of Boston is probably the best substitute thus far found. The municipal lodging-house of New York city has no work test, but its place as a deterring agency is taken by a system of inquiry regarding former employers and former places of resi-

dence, supplemented by commitment to the workhouse for vagrancy in suitable cases. This plan is infinitely better than indiscriminate lodgings in police stations. These necessarily become centres of contagion both of disease and of vice. The plan suggested by the Chicago associated charities, backed by an offer of accommodations in the woodyard and lodging-house of the relief and aid society, should be adopted. It is not probable, however, that the city will take up with the plan at once, as it is understood that the mayor has indicated his unwillingness to indorse it, the police station lodgings seeming to him preferable.

The Housing Problem in Washington.

Some two or three years ago an investigation was made of the alley houses and slums of Washington. It was found that the blind alleys which exist in that city, shutting off small communities from the outside world, tended to promote not only insani- tary conditions, but immorality and crime. It was found, too, that the residents of these slum quarters were paying unreasonably high rents. The investigation led to the organization of the Washington sanitary improvement company, with the primary object of providing homes for the alley residents and thereby clearing out the slums. It has been considered best, however, to commence with improved dwellings for the better class of wage-earners, assuming that the houses vacated by them would be rented by the

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next grade, and so on, until the bottom of the ladder is reached. Whatever the actual effect of this plan may be on the alley population, it at least guarantees a safe investment, and a distinct gain for the families who are immediately housed. Twenty-eight two-story flats have been erected so far, with separate bath, entrance, yard, and cellar for each apartment. The company grants one month's rent free to every tenant, or so much thereof as has not been expended during any one year for interior repairs. Exterior repairs necessitated by the elements are not charged against tenants. No officer of the company receives any compensation, and this, with the exercise of strict economy and careful business methods, has enabled the directors to pay five per cent dividends on all moneys invested in the company from the beginning.

Improved Dwellings in Philadelphia. The Octavia Hill association of Philadelphia has been at work for three years in improving living conditions in the poorer residence districts of that city. Old properties and small houses have been refitted, and as far as possible unhealthful surroundings have been removed. The association at present manages, in addition to the thirty small houses which it owns, a nearly equal number for other property-holders. The educational and moral influence exerted depends to a considerable extent upon the regular visits of the rent collector. The work of the associa-

tion is carried on in five different localities of the city. A kindergarten has been established. The city has aided in making necessary improvements in the streets and in the water system. Business methods and a strict system of rent collecting have made possible a return of four and one-half per cent on the capital of \$34,000 so far invested.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

Toronto.

A charity organization society has been inaugurated in Toronto, a permanent secretary, Rev. R. C. Tibb, having been appointed and an office opened. The society begins with a business-like circular signed by James Massey, chairman, and sent to the business men of the city. It is assumed that the expenses will not exceed \$1,000 per annum. The position taken regarding relief, is that the society will not disburse material relief, but will establish relations with the charitable societies of the city.

Montreal.

The movement for the formation of a charity organization society in Montreal has been in progress for over a year, and has finally taken definite shape under the leadership of Mrs. George A. Drummond, representing the local council of women of that city. The influence of other cities in support of the organized charity movement is indicated by the following from a leading article in the *Montreal Herald*: "The report for the year of the charity organization society [of New York city] is deeply interesting, showing a marvelous

amount of work systematically carried on, and that the plan is thoroughly successful. Why should not the associated charities or charity organization society solve, to a great extent, the charity problem in Montreal? And again, the year book of the New York society prints on the cover the significant words: 'The charities of New York—united, an army; divided, a mob.' A study of the principles and methods of such a society makes the truth of the words as clear as daylight."

The associated charities of Newburgh, N. Y., is placing the services of a competent agent at the disposal of the almshouse commissioners of that city for the investigation of cases in which outdoor relief is asked. The fact has been brought to light that the city in thirty years has doubled the amount expended in outdoor relief.

The Denver charity organization society, in its annual report, shows that \$23,000 was received during the year, of which \$9,000 was appropriated by the city council. This money was used in monthly allotments to fifteen private charities of the city and \$4,800 was expended by the central office. There were 5,178 applications for help, and relief was granted in 3,471 cases.

The fourth annual report of the Pueblo associated charities shows total receipts of \$2,255.83, disbursed to seven private charities and by applications direct to the central office. The number

of applications received was 2,240, and 1,186 individuals were helped. The number of applicants for work was 400, and there were 490 applications for workers.

The board of trustees of the associated charities of St. Paul record advances made in co-operation, especially with the churches. Friendly visiting and provident savings are both in flourishing condition, and district nursing has been undertaken. The following extract is taken from the annual report of the general secretary:

There is some danger that the presence in the city of less distress from want of material things than there has been for some years past may lead some good people to think that they are not called upon to subscribe so liberally as formerly. Since the work is maintained by voluntary contributions, it is proper to emphasize the fact here that this reasoning can not in any sense be made to apply to the associated charities. Our particular work is the building up and rehabilitating of the poor and unfortunate. The money we receive is spent, not in providing food, fuel, raiment, etc.,—although that form of charitable effort is necessary and commendable—but in raising the needy out of want into a condition of self-support. The destitute whom we successfully treat . . . will not find it necessary to call for material aid afterwards, even in hard times. Our business is not to ease the pains of poverty—although when necessary we see that this meritorious work is done—but to cure the disease where it has found a foothold, and to prevent its appearance in places where there is danger of its coming. This

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is the special mission of the associated charities, the purpose for which the constituent charities established it. It will be seen at once that work of this kind can be better done in good times than in bad times. Hence, even from an economical standpoint, it is wiser to be generous now, as any falling off in the amount contributed this year will result in a need for larger sums in the future.

Employment Exchange.

Wanted: a secretary to take charge of charity organization work in a city of 300,000 inhabitants.

In a city of 132,000 inhabitants a head worker is needed to extend the work of a well established girls' club, with junior and senior branches, along settlement lines. The club-house is owned by the girls' club, but is not at present adapted for residence. The neighborhood is one of self-respecting families, living for the most part in two-tenement houses; the younger girls are mostly school children, the senior branch composed of mill girls. The settlement desires a woman experienced in neighborhood work and expects to pay a salary of six or seven hundred dollars.

Application may be made through the REVIEW.

CHILDREN.

Children's Guardians of New Jersey

The press of New Jersey has been well supplied recently with attacks upon the work of the state board of children's guardians, and with replies by representatives of that board. After carefully reading all of this material, the impression is left that a board well constituted for a very important work has been

hampered by the lack of necessary appropriations, and, perhaps, by possible doubt as to the scope of its powers, and that it has been made the subject of violent attack by those who have been responsible for the abuses which this board was created to correct. The past and present attitude of the freeholders of Hudson county in persistently retaining large numbers of children in an almshouse in association with adult paupers is not such as to commend their criticisms of the board of guardians to favorable consideration, and their attacks upon the board are evidently intended to arouse sectarian interests against the latter. The board denies unreservedly and in detail the statements made by the freeholders that it has placed children in unsuitable homes, or in homes of a different faith from that of the children. Remembering the persistence with which the freeholders have insisted upon keeping their children in almshouses, and that the state board of children's guardians was created to correct this evil, one can not but hope that the board will be successful in convincing the public, not only of the falsity of the criticisms of its work, but of the unworthiness of the motives which prompted the charges. Even if it should be found that children have been placed in unsuitable homes, the board should still be given an opportunity to do its work with an adequate appropriation, before any radical changes are contemplated. The general plan is undoubtedly a good one.

Philadelphia
Home for
Crippled
Children.

Mr. Peter A. B. Widener, of Philadelphia, has announced in a letter to the mayor of that city, that he proposes to erect and endow a home for crippled children, at a cost of \$2,000,000. A tract of thirty-six acres has already been purchased for this purpose near Logan station in the outlying districts of Philadelphia. In his letter to the mayor, Mr. Widener says:

It is a matter of common experience in the management of orthopaedic hospitals that patients, after they have received the immediate surgical and medical attention which their cases demand, and being well started on the road to recovery, require considerable time to effect a permanent cure. This is characteristic of all operations in orthopaedic surgery, where prolonged and constant treatment, usually by means of mechanical devices, applied under the watchful eye of the specialist, affords the only hope of complete recovery.

But the difficulty always is, especially in cases of non-paying patients, to retain them in the hospital until the cure is effected. New cases of grave character requiring immediate attention are constantly pressing for admission, and in justice to these the hospital authorities are forced to dismiss their convalescents long before recovery is assured.

In too many instances, after the return to the home, where the demands of the family livelihood are insistent, the patient either drifts into some injurious occupation which fatally retards recovery, or, if not put to work, neglect soon tends to the same end. The cares of daily life press too heavily upon the unskilled laborer, or even upon the mechanic, when times are hard and

work is scarce, to make it possible for self-sacrifice to go as far as complete recovery demands. It is just here that this home for crippled children will open its doors and save many a helpless one from poverty, transforming them into useful and self-sustaining men and women.

As will be seen from the plans, which are here for your inspection, the transfer from the hospital to the home means a transfer from a hospital pure and simple to a home hospital where skilled surgical and medical attendants will continue the treatment demanded by each case, and where, in addition—and this is the feature of the scheme—each child will receive during treatment, as the condition of the case may warrant, not only elementary and grammar-school training for the younger members of the home, but technical training in addition for the older, which will fit them to earn their own living when discharged.

Special attention will be given to instruction in those trades which are adapted to the feeble-minded—for chronic cases will be cared for, too—and, for all, competent instructors will give the inmates skill and courage in their several callings. Little children, and young men and women, may find here a home, and on going out into the world at large, whether entirely recovered from their infirmity, or, in chronic cases, only partially relieved, the home will have made them useful and self-respecting members of the community.

The objects of the institution, as stated by Mr. Widener, are certainly most commendable, and the community is indebted to the donor not only for his generous contribution, but for the careful study he has given to the subject. An excellent institution, quite similar to that now proposed, but much smaller, is

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the daisy fields home and hospital for crippled children, located at Englewood, N. J., but receiving most of its children from New York city.

If a suggestion might be permitted, it would be that the endowment should not be limited too strictly to the maintenance of the institution, but that it should be made possible to use a portion of the income for the support of special cases in other institutions or in families, where they can secure either special training which may not be afforded in the Home, or can be supported under climatic conditions most favorable to their individual condition and needs. It would seem, too, that the maintenance of any considerable number of feeble-minded children at the Home might have an unfortunate effect upon the other children.

**District of
Columbia.**

The report of the children's guardians of the District of Columbia gives a very complete and satisfactory description of the work of this governmental body, created in 1893 to care for certain children who had theretofore been supported in private institutions at the expense of the district. Its establishment was recommended by the first superintendent of charities of the district, Prof. Amos G. Warner. The number of children under the guardianship of this board has steadily increased year by year. During the past year 732 cases have been investigated; 135 children were committed permanently and 113 tem-

porarily to its guardianship. The board has large discretionary powers and may care for the children either by placing them in institutions to board, or by boarding them in families, or by placing them by adoption or indenture. On June 30, 1899, 264 children were being maintained by the board, of whom 119 were infants and other young children boarded in families, eighty-four were colored children boarded in institutions, sixteen were white children boarded in institutions, and forty-five were feeble-minded children in institutions. On the same date, there were 311 children in free homes in families, remaining under the supervision of the board. The average number of children in families under the supervision of the board during the year was 396.

The board asks for an appropriation for the salary of an additional visitor, which is certainly a reasonable and proper request.

The fact that the superintendent of a children's home in Boston has recently been sentenced to imprisonment for six years for cruelty to the inmates is further proof of the extreme danger of permitting corporal punishment in such institutions, and of the necessity of state inspection of all charitable institutions, both public and private.

The report of the New York catholic home bureau from the date of its organization, late in 1898, to September 30, 1899, states that 116

**The Chances
for Institutional
Cruelty.**

**Catholic Home
Bureau of
New York.**

applications for children—twenty-nine being applications for children for adoption—have been received. One hundred and two of the applications came from the state of New York. Seven children have been placed out for adoption, and thirty-one for possible adoption and help. The agent of the bureau has called in person on all the bishops of the state, and is satisfied that the work is regarded favorably by them. A tour was also made of the cities and towns in the archdiocese of New York for the purpose of enlisting the interest of the clergy. The success of the work during the first year indicates that a large field of usefulness is open to this most welcome addition to the charities of New York city.

The Curfew. It is reported from Indianapolis that a rigid enforcement of the curfew law in that city has caused a decrease of eighty per cent in commitments of youths to the reform school.

PRISONERS.

Opening of Convict Mail Illegal. The following decision, rendered by Judge Drummond for the United States post-office department, seems to indicate that the opening of convicts' letters is a violation of the postal laws:

There is no law which authorizes a warden to open a prisoner's letters under any circumstances. It is the practice, founded on the rules of most prisons, adopted as a matter of precaution to prevent the escape of prisoners. It is, nevertheless, a

very delicate trust, and should be exercised with such care as to prevent the disclosure of any confidential communications passing between the prisoner and his friends, except such communications as might jeopardize the prison discipline. Such communications ought, if possible, to be opened in the presence of the prisoner addressed. To allow them to be opened by an officer not in charge of the prisoner and then returned in a mutilated condition, thus endangering the safe delivery of the letter and such enclosures as it may contain, and this, too, because the officer has failed to advise himself before opening the letter that he can not deliver it, is an outrage upon the rights of the prisoner. An officer thus knowingly opening a letter not addressed to himself nor to any one under his immediate charge, subjects himself to indictment under section 3892, R. S.

Changes at Elmira.

The board of managers of the Elmira reformatory has abolished the famous manual training department of that institution. This necessitates the resignation of the head of the department, Prof. R. C. Bates, who, it is understood, has been the right-hand man of Superintendent Brockway. The superintendent recently requested permission to renew corporal punishment, formerly abolished, on the ground that some severe form of discipline is essential, but that solitary confinement is not satisfactory in its results. This request has been denied, the law of the state not permitting corporal punishment in this institution. The board hopes to be able to remove the most unruly inmates to other prisons, thus obvi-

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Re-election of Warden Weyler.

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The board of directors of the Maryland penitentiary have re-elected Warden John F. Weyler for another year, the election dating from June 1, when his previous term expired. Since then he has been holding over because of the board's failure to elect a warden. This closes a contest which has been waged for some months for the replacement of Mr. Weyler, who is a democrat, by a republican candidate. The board apparently found it very difficult to decide between the merits of the respective candidates. But since the recent state election, which went strongly democratic, they seem to have discovered some new considerations in Mr. Weyler's favor, the tie vote of months being at the last meeting suddenly metamorphosed practically into unanimity. There is clearly no reason, so far as his work is concerned, why the present warden should be displaced. In the eleven years of his service he has brought the penitentiary up to a high standard of efficiency and financial prosperity. The new building of the institution, into which the long-term prisoners have just been transferred, is perhaps the best in the country. It has already been noted in the REVIEW for June last.

Good roads at a small expense seem to be entirely feasible in the counties of New York and Pennsylvania where inmates of the jails have been set at

the work. In Oneida county, N. Y., it costs by this plan about \$1,000 per mile to construct macadam roads, which is about one-fourth of the usual price. In several counties in Pennsylvania advantage has been taken of the new law permitting the employment of jail prisoners. Generally the work is first attempted about the jail premises, and when all has been done there that seems desirable, and some experience has been gained in handling the gangs, they will be set at work on the roads. It is said that this plan exerts a very appreciable influence on the census of the jails, the professional vagrant not caring to winter where he has to work.

For some years past the prison association of New York has found itself face to face with conflicting statements as to the efficiency of the penal institutions of the state in the matter of prison labor and reformatory methods. By some it was said that the system of prison labor in vogue was entirely adequate to all needs of discipline and for the welfare of the prisoners. A system of classification had been established, on a basis of the number of convictions only, from which good results were claimed by the department of prisons that were not apparent in dealings with discharged prisoners. For these and sundry other reasons a thorough examination of the penal system of the state was determined upon, beginning with the state prisons, and a committee for this purpose was appointed. This committee has made a most thorough and searching examination of the prisons. Its report will go into the legislature at an

Re-election of
Warden Weyler.

An Investigation
of New
York Prisons.

Jail Labor.

early date of the session and will show that not all the prisoners are employed, not more than one-third of them being steadily employed; that such as are occupied are not required to work full time, and with tasks not likely to develop good habits of industry; that none of the grades of prisoners are instructed with a special view of fitting them for outside occupations, as the law contemplates; that the buildings are unsanitary and dangerous from fires; several fires have taken place within the last few years; that the pernicious custom of overcrowding has existed in some prisons, while there are hundreds of empty cells in others, and that the prison schools are far from what they should be, and moral instruction is restricted to the duties of one chaplain to each prison, with a prison population varying from seven to eleven hundred prisoners.

The report will suggest legislation likely to correct these defects, and the prison association, with kindred organizations, will push such legislation to the enactment of law. Many of the defects of the prison system are shown to have been such as could have been remedied by the department of prisons, which has, since the enactment of the constitutional amendment, had both time and power to have done so.

W. M. F. Round.

Flowers as a
Reformatory
Influence.

The Illinois house of correction is about to try an interesting experiment in the reformation of women criminals. Superintendent Sloan has built three large greenhouses, covering a space of 4,000 square feet, in which it is intended to grow roses, carnations, and chrysanthemums for the Chicago market. The women prisoners will have the entire work of the greenhouses, under direction of an expert horticulturist. It is hoped

that contact with the growing plants will exert a softening and regenerating influence on the women.

STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

Iowa. In its first biennial report the Iowa state board of control makes a number of suggestions regarding the institutions of the state, all of which are under its management.

It is maintained that the recent outbreak of the girls at the Mitchellville reform school was due to faults in the law, and to avoid such occurrences it is recommended that the more vicious young women and those of positively impure lives be refused admission, and that all proving troublesome and all at the age of eighteen be removed. The board recommends that a reformatory be established for the care of such as can not be safely cared for at the Mitchellville institution. It is also recommended that a reformatory for first offenders and youthful criminals be established in connection with one of the penitentiaries.

It is shown that the county system of care for the insane here as elsewhere, has opened the way to serious abuses. A law is asked placing the supervision of all county and private asylums under the control of the board. Nineteen such institutions visited by the board have been condemned.

Relative to industries in the state institutions, the board does not make a specific recommendation for the establishment of industries on state account, but discusses several, including the making of twine, which might be profitably established. It indorses the contract piece-price plan for the employment of the convicts of the penitentiaries and recommends a sewing plant for the girls' reform school.

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transform one of the state prisons into a reformatory for young criminals and first offenders, making the other a penitentiary.

The establishment of an epileptic colony on the plan of Craig colony is urged.

Minnesota. Warden Henry Wolfer severed his connection with the Minnesota state prison November 30, after about seven and a half years' service at the head of that institution, and twenty-eight years' service in various capacities in prisons, including the Detroit house of correction, the Joliet prison, and the Minnesota prison. Warden Wolfer's resignation was a cause of regret to the management, the officers, and the prisoners. He has taken a position with a company engaged in the grass-twine business. It was in this work that Warden Wolfer has for some years engaged the prisoners at Stillwater, with a success which has led other prisons to take up the same industry. His services netted the state from \$20,000 to \$40,000 a year, and it is not surprising that private enterprise, after trying several times, succeeded in getting him away from the state. Warden Wolfer is succeeded by Gen. C. McC. Reeve, for many years a business man in Minneapolis, and prominently associated with the state militia.

Colorado. During the month fires from overheated furnaces occurred in the state home for dependent children and the Denver orphans' home in Denver. Both of these fires were discovered only after considerable headway had been

made, and it speaks well for the management of the two institutions that the children were under such good discipline and control that they were marched from the buildings without panic. At the state home three or four of the young boys assisted the superintendent so successfully that the flames were under control before the fire department arrived.

The social science department of the Denver woman's club has opened a social settlement in the railway district of the city. A day nursery, a library, a sewing school, and a playhouse for children are included in the plans for this charity.

The manual-training work done at the state industrial school for boys, at Golden, possesses some original features. The instructor was a carpenter and mechanic who had given little or no attention to Sloyd or manual-training work until he was ordered by the board of control to take up that work in the institution. Although at first he protested, he finally was persuaded to undertake it, with the result that he has not only become interested, but has developed a plan with a course of study which is original with him and intensely practical for such an institution. The progress in the education of the boys under this instruction has been marked.

Massachusetts. Mrs. Frances A. Morton has been appointed superintendent of the reformatory prison for women at Sherborn, Mass., the position formerly held by Mrs. Ellen

C. Johnson, deceased. The governor of Massachusetts has also nominated Mrs. Frances G. Curtis, of Boston, as a member of the state board of charity in place of Miss Annette P. Rogers, resigned.

New York. The state board of charities has approved of the incorporation of "St. Peter's union for catholic seamen" in New York city, Archbishop Corrigan being one of the incorporators. It disapproved of the incorporation of the "Emanuel hospital and dispensary," no necessity for its establishment having been shown and its financial resources not being satisfactory. Licenses have been granted to a large number of dispensaries which have recently filed their applications. These were all either incorporated by themselves or connected with other incorporated institutions, and, under the terms of the law, were entitled to licenses upon making application in due form.

A manual has been adopted by the board for the guidance of inspectors in the performance of their duties.

The overseers of the poor of the town of Hempstead, in Nassau county, have been notified of the lack of sufficient water supply at the town almshouse and of other defects, and required to correct the same. The attention of the boards of managers of a large number of private incorporations has been called to defects or evils in their management, as discovered by the board's inspectors in the course of

their visits, and they have been requested to remedy the same. It is said, in this connection, that one of the results of the systematic inspection established by the board during the past year or so has been to secure, within the past six months, more necessary improvements in public and private institutions than ever before in the history of the board.

Professional versus Business Qualifications. Dr. Frank E. Auten, superintendent of the Illinois hospital for the criminal insane at Chester, has resigned. It is understood that, while successful professionally, his administration was not satisfactory from a disciplinarian and business standpoint. It is a rare man who can be both a good business manager and a successful specialist in professional work. Where institutions are large enough, the two functions should be kept apart, and a superintendent provided for the business management, while the physician, if the institution requires the services of a specialist, should be permitted to devote his attention exclusively to the duties of his profession. Of course, this means a larger salary list, but it is highly probable that every thousand dollars spent in securing good business superintendence would save five thousand in the cost of the institution. There should be a physician, unhampered in his department, and a business superintendent, with complete control in his department. To shift the professional responsibility on to a business man-

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ager, or the business responsibility on to the professional head of the institution, is not good policy, however customary it may be.

**Employment
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for Farmers.**

The division of statistics of the United States department of agriculture has undertaken the publication for wide distribution of lists of free employment offices and other institutions to which farmers may apply when in need of farm laborers. The co-operation of many charity organization societies, settlements, colleges, etc., has been secured and it is hoped thus to facilitate communication between the farmers who want hands and those who are in need of work for the summer months or for the entire year.

**The Order of
St. Christopher.**

The order of St. Christopher, the object of which, as mentioned in the REVIEW for October, is to train institutional workers, was reorganized on November 18, at College Point, N. Y. A chapter house has been established at College Point, which will serve the purpose, primarily, of a training school for institutional workers, and which will, also, become an industrial school for unruly boys, the first definite work to be undertaken. The training will consist of systematic textbook and lecture courses in economics, dietetics, hygiene, methods of discipline, practical psychology, study of de-

generate conditions, simple surgery, possibilities and methods of charitable organizations, and study of institutions. A probational term must be served, then a novitiate, six months, and a final term of three years in special work. At the close of the final period, a member may continue work under direction of the order, or may assume an independent position in an institution where the principles of the order are observed. Officers and employes will be furnished to institutions, who will engage in special work, or will take full control under certain conditions of support.

**A Country
Parish House.**

The first church of Boston has purchased a farm near Shirley, Mass., which will be used as a vacation home for working mothers, young men and women, and children connected with the congregation. This action was prompted by the success of a plan carried out during the last summer, by which a vacation outing was given to a few boys belonging to the congregation. Opportunities for boating and bathing and for camping, an outdoor gymnasium, and other attractions will be furnished at the new house. The scheme will be as nearly as possible self-supporting, as far as the boys and the girls are concerned. When necessary, the house can also be used as a convalescent home.

WHAT IS CHARITY ORGANIZATION ?

BY MARY E. RICHMOND.

This is no new question; during the last twenty years it has been asked and answered many times. But all live and growing things elude definition, and when we are able to say to every one's satisfaction precisely what charity organization is, then our charity organization societies will have had their day. Still, a working definition of some rough sort is necessary, even though we be forced continually to revise it. The writer is aware that this present attempt to restate the familiar truths of charity organization, with reference to the problems of to-day, will be in need almost immediately of revision.

Alma. Every human institution is an effort to meet some human need. What human need does charity organization strive to meet? It is to be feared that nine out of every ten persons would reply, Charity organization meets the need of the public for protection against imposture and waste in charity. One of the earlier statements published in this country announced that the two germinal principles of charity organization were entire dissociation from all questions of creed, and no direct administration of relief. No imposture, no waste, no proselytizing, no relief—these were the "thou shalt not's" of our old testament. But charity organization brought a

positive affirmation into the world, in answer to a positive need, or we should not still be thinking and writing about it after all these years.

The affirmation of charity organization is this: Charity is a great spiritual force. Too often, for lack of knowledge and organization, it has been a blind force, cursing where it would bless, destroying where it would heal. Nevertheless, the vision we see and proclaim is the vision of a purified and enlightened charity, capable of infinite development, capable of becoming a great social force. This spirit of charity, so widely diffused among high and low, abroad everywhere in the world and everywhere so helpless and infelicitous still, stirs our imaginations and conquers our impatience. We long to make the loving heart of the world a more effectual instrument for the world's redemption. In a word, the message of charity organization is the message of the undeveloped possibilities of charity; the human need that it strives to meet is the need of a more strenuous charitable ideal.

Two very different attitudes of mind made such a message necessary. In the first place, charity had suffered from the complacent way in which people were accustomed to think of their own work and their own good intentions. When the royal poor law commission of 1834

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sent circulars of inquiry to overseers of the poor, one of these replied as follows: "It will never do we any good to alter the law in our parish, as our parishes very small and there is no probability of alter our kearse at all. There is no persons fitter to manage the parish better than ourselves. —T. T., *oversear*." This attitude of mind, which might be described, for brevity, as "the attitude of T. T.," is still common enough, but it was a more stubborn and full-blown growth thirty years ago, when charity organization began. Wherever it still appears, there is no more effectual barrier to charitable development. In charity we have none of the self-acting checks of the commercial world. There the automatic action of business laws would have driven "T. T." to the wall very quickly, or else would have convinced him, in spite of himself, that there was every "probability" of altering his "kearse."

In sharp contrast to the attitude of "T. T.," but almost as fatal to any real development of charity, was the attitude of the economists, who were inclined to regard all charitable endeavor as a mischievous interference with the operation of natural laws. There were many earnest men, not theorists at all, who were depressed by their practical experience of the effects of benevolent action. They saw that relief reduced wages and rendered the lot of the independent laborer less endurable; they saw that alms distributed among the semi-dependent only increased their dependence

and their misery. Some of these men were driven to preach a gospel of despair, and to proclaim that charity was a failure.

But the time was ripe for another affirmation, for a declaration of faith, and a definite plan of campaign. And, as often happens, those who were most depressed by the evils of the time were the first to suggest a remedy.

In 1866, when Edward Denison was still a visitor for the society for the relief of distress, he wrote to a friend that he saw how perfectly useless were doles of bread and meat. "All the men," he wrote again a little later, "who really give themselves most trouble about the poor are the most alive to the terrible evils of the so-called charity which pours money into the haunts of misery and vice every winter." This was from Stepney, one of those great London wastes of humanity, where Denison had gone to live and work. It was here that he found a positive program and began to organize schools, night classes, workingmen's institutes, and sanitary reforms. "Lend them your brains; help them to help themselves," he advised, and flung himself eagerly into this work of developing charity by developing substitutes for relief.

The outlook was at once difficult and inspiring. "Does it seem to you pedantic and unreal," asks one of his last letters, "that I should say—what is truly the fact—that the drama of humanity in its present phase strikes me as surpassing the interest of all possible poetry and

fiction in its sublimity, its intensity, in all that appeals to whatever of us is not material? It is like looking on at a most exciting play, only a million times better. Alas! I pronounce my own doom in speaking of looking on—no one ought to have time to look on; but just now you know I am obliged to." Worn out prematurely by this very intensity of interest, Denison died only two months after this was written. A little earlier, in 1869, the first charity organization society had been started in London. Denison had little to do with the formal organization of this society, but no one had more to do with shaping its ideals. It is interesting to note, in passing, that he was also the John Baptist of the social settlement movement.

The new organization believed as earnestly as Denison did in developing all possible substitutes for relief, but it found another and more immediately pressing task thrust upon it. Substitutes for relief could gain no foothold, so long as relief itself in larger quantities continued to be poured out, without plan or purpose or intercommunication, by agencies both religious and secular, both public and private. Relief, as Denison recognized, had its beneficent uses as a part of plans for improvement and progress, but relief given either too mechanically or too impulsively, and unaccompanied by this thoughtful planning, not only demoralized the poor by weakening their power of self-helpfulness, but it also cut them off from the sympathy of their fellow-

men. It was a common fault of careless givers to complain bitterly of those very faults in the poor which they themselves had fostered, and this inevitable disillusion of the thoughtlessly charitable hindered the growth of the charitable spirit. The organization of relief, therefore, seemed quite as important as the organization of substitutes for relief.

Attitude
toward
Relief.

What do we mean by the organization of relief? Many charity organizationists feel that our movement is not very happily named, for when we say that we wish to see charity and charitable relief "organized," we convey to the uninitiated little idea of what we mean. Popularly speaking, things are "organized" when they have a president and secretary and managers, with audited accounts and an office. Charitable relief is supposed to be very well organized when it is honestly administered, avoids duplicating the work of other relief agencies, and is not wasted on arrant impostors. Perhaps this is as heavy a freight of meaning as we reasonably may expect any one word to carry; but relief is not organized, in the charity organization sense of the word, if it is permitted to check the development of the charitable spirit among the poor or among the charitable themselves. It checks charity if it is separated from personal relations with the poor, or is used as a substitute for such relations. If it relieves people of any share of just responsibility towards relatives, friends, fellow church-members, employés,

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or other less favored acquaintances, it checks charity. Any form of organized relief that ignores these dangers, or does not strive earnestly to minimize them, is itself more dangerous than disorganized relief possibly can be.

All our large American cities have general relief societies, holding in trust funds for supplying material relief, after investigation, to those who can not be helped from more natural and personal sources. Whatever the future may do for us in the development of substitutes for relief and the wider diffusion of the charitable spirit, it is beyond dispute that these societies are now an absolute necessity. If the view here expressed concerning relief be a correct one, they have undertaken a difficult task, which they are discharging, in many instances, with conspicuous ability and devotion. There is still open to these societies a wide field of charitable usefulness in devising better forms of relief. These are still surprisingly crude, and the literature of the subject is very meagre; everybody has been doing relief work, but no one is able, apparently, to formulate any very helpful suggestions as to how it should be done.

In still another way these societies can render a great service to the cause of charity. It has been said that every charity organization society should strive to render itself unnecessary. Our relief societies, too, should strive to render themselves, in time, unnecessary; and they will do this best, and serve their

highest purpose, by resisting the commercial tendency toward consolidation. The commercial ideal is a very misleading one in charity. If the sole object of charity were to get relief distributed promptly and economically, then we might advocate the establishment of a relief trust. It is important that relief work should be well done; but it is more important that charitable people should themselves learn to do charitable work in a truly charitable way.

All this has a practical bearing upon charity organization, for, since our charity organization societies and relief societies have been learning so much from each other and have come to have so many convictions in common, people have been asking, Why not consolidate? If, as has been demonstrated, the work of both can be done better by close co-operation, why not become one society? To any one who knows little about the work of either, this suggestion is likely to seem eminently practical. But the detail work of a charity organization society, as described in the remaining pages of this paper, finds many hindrances, without the additional hindrance of a relief fund. That such a fund is a serious hindrance to the work of organizing a city's charity we have the overwhelming evidence of twenty years of experiment in proof. It cuts off co-operation with other relief agencies, it leaves undone the task of diverting the smaller streams of relief into useful channels, it hampers the

ingenuity of workers in developing substitutes for relief. These are the psychological effects of a large relief fund upon the imaginations of the charitable; and their recurrent operation would seem to be almost as clearly defined as is the operation of Gresham's law in the world of finance, and as little capable of being set aside.

Turning from the discussion of first principles to methods of work, let us consider these briefly under the familiar divisions of co-operation, investigation, registration, constructive work, friendly visiting, and education. Principles are the same everywhere, but methods must vary. No attempt is made in the present paper to consider the methods best adapted to small towns, though this is a very important part of the subject—one deserving of more careful study than any one has yet given it.

Co-operation. Young workers, who know nothing of the conditions of twenty years ago, are unable to measure justly what charity organization has accomplished in this country. The hindrances have been many. The stubborn attitude of "T. T." has appeared in unexpected places—in ourselves, for instance. Then sectarianism was another drawback. We smile now, when we read Gurteen's solemn warnings against admitting clergymen to membership in the charity organization society, but all the earlier statements are filled with warnings against proselytizing, and the leaders of the new movement seemed to

regard this as its gravest danger. How fortunate it is for the churches and for charity that all this is changed! Another hindrance was the inertia of large vested interests and endowments. A man may still bequeath his millions in such a way that they become very effectual barriers to charitable development, and one service that charity organization should render the community is to publish, after conference, a list of actual needs still to be met by endowment.

But the most obvious hindrances to development were the rivalry and unfriendliness formerly too common among charities. In its very form of organization, therefore, the new movement emphasized the importance of working together. Some of our American societies adopted the name of "associated charities" to give prominence to the fact that this was no new and rival charity added to the long list, but a new development, merely, of the old established agencies.

The form of organization by districts gave additional emphasis to this fundamental principle. A city was divided into workable territories, and the district office placed in each was understood to belong to the churches of all denominations, to the charities of the district, and to its charitable citizens. This office was to be their common meeting ground in all matters in which conference was desirable. Through such an office, the volunteer and paid force of the society became familiar with local conditions among the poor, and made

acquaintance with the needs of the servants of the poor. Teachers of all those many varied forms of work, or worse, far more than they could do, and charity, co-operation.

Investigation. Charitable work abroad everywhere. The chief was the endeavor for the living. The lives were known, caricatured, satisfied that we spent in though anything without t

This part of the work of investigation no apology. If the method are the method cause is in thorough enough, w

acquaintance with the local public servants—the police, the school teachers, the sanitary inspectors, and all those neighborhood influences of many varied sorts which, for better or worse, mould the lives of the poor far more than our charities mould them. The district system transforms co-operation from a scheme into a living reality, and the actual working together of individuals over small tasks, breaking down prejudice, as it does, and imparting better ideals of charity, is the best possible form of co-operation.

We have seen that charity investigation. organizationists found the charitable spirit widely diffused, abroad everywhere in the world, but everywhere helpless and ineffectual. The chief reason for this inefficiency was the divorce of charitable endeavor from the actual facts of life. The lives and needs of the poor were known only in sentimental caricature, and so well were we satisfied with the cheap counterfeit that we grudged time and money spent in learning the truth. As though charity could possibly be anything but cruelly uncharitable without the truth!

This part of charity organization, the work of painstaking, systematic investigation, should be treated in no apologetic spirit by its advocates. If the methods of charity organization are sometimes as ineffectual as the methods they replaced, the cause is here. We do not believe in thorough investigation heartily enough, we speak of it as a necessary

evil, and, in a spirit of compromise, find out but little, because, in our unbelief, it is irksome to us to find out anything. There is one thing worse than no investigation at all, and that is the investigation which stops as soon as it has discovered something damaging or something favorable, and so can make a show of knowledge.

Honest investigation means a sincere, unbiased searching for the whole truth, including not merely the dry facts, but that setting of circumstance and opportunity in which the facts exist. "The word investigation means such different things in the mouths of different persons," says a London worker. "In one, it means infinite pains on the part of many people, careful correspondence, repeated interviews, a personal exercise of thought and interest, of patience and ingenuity—all this leading up to some wise plan for lasting benefit. In another it means a word or two of reference, and a label of 'deserving' or 'undeserving' attached to a fellow-creature. The label does not help; we must put it aside, and go on finding out whether any good can be done or not. In nothing is the difference between skilled and unskilled work more manifest than in the possession or lack of a power of contrivance in the treatment of a difficult case. The art of finding out what to do is one to which some seem never to attain, but it is really little else than that persevering industry which will ask every question, think out every detail, write every letter, and pay

every visit that can possibly throw light on the subject."

It is obvious that societies organized on the district plan, and in close touch, not only with other charities, but with all the local sources of information, have certain natural advantages as investigators. One of the most valuable of the detail services rendered by charity organization is this painstaking collecting of facts about cases of need for those charitably interested. But no part of its work tests more thoroughly the convictions and devotion of its workers. Skill in this comes not alone from experience, but from right feeling and a clear grasp of fundamental principles. Investigations made by our societies in the early days, as we return to them now on old record cards, seem childishly crude, and one advantage of the charity organization habit of putting everything down in black and white is that we are continually learning, in this way, from our own blunders.

Two cautions with regard to investigation may be mentioned in passing. Objection has been made to the monopoly of relief-giving by any relief agency; there are equally grave objections to the monopoly of investigation by a charity organization society. The educational value of investigation to the investigator is great. On the other hand, a society that tried to do all the investigating which needed to be done, could give little time to the treatment of cases, and investigations are corrected and improved

by the experience that comes with treatment. It would seem to be established that charity organization does its best work when it bears the burden of experiment and initiative, but shuns every form of monopoly. Another danger of investigation is that, in discovering the truth about individual applicants, we may convey to inquirers a false impression of the poor. Charitable people in their inexperience often generalize hastily from one or two unfavorable reports, and infer that fraud and imposture are the rule instead of the exception. We should make clear the exceptional character of our reports, and we should never cease repeating that we investigate applicants, not to find them out, but to find out how to help them.

One of the earliest methods of co-operation introduced by charity organization was a system of recording the charitable relief of various agencies at a central office, and of forwarding to these agencies, in return, all information received that was likely to be of service to them. The device was simply an adaptation to charitable needs of a system of exchange now practiced by almost every modern institution. Libraries, hospitals, public departments, labor bureaus, colleges, and universities, all use some form of registration, but no method adopted by charity organization has been so absurdly misunderstood. Registration is not an attempt to control the action of the registering agencies; it is not an attempt to brand the poor

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as paupers. Far from exposing the recipients of charity to publicity, the system guards them from it, and was devised, in part, for that purpose. Save to those who are already interested in some given case, the records are as impersonal as the records of the United States census, and are much more carefully guarded than is usual with other charitable records. Where registration has been given a fair trial, which is in only two or three of our cities, it has been a valuable aid to intelligent co-operation in the treatment of needy families; and those who know the actual practical workings of the system have difficulty in understanding the prejudice against it. But the census arouses the same opposition from untrained minds; only those who have some conception of society as a whole will co-operate heartily in the effort to collect the data that seem to them individually so personal and so private.

Another form of registration is the systematic recording of charities, their objects, and the general information concerning them. The larger charity organization societies publish directories of the charities of their several cities, arranged with special reference to facilitating co-operation. And in two or three of the great centres of population, where fraudulent charitable schemes are able, sometimes, to gain great headway, the local charity organization societies do a genuine service by investigating and reporting upon new charities. Agencies owing their existence in many instances to

anything but charitable motives are in this way cut off from public support, while the organization of those agencies is stimulated which by meeting a real need, develop the charitable impulse.

Constructive Work. All this collecting and sifting of data is constructive work in the sense that it

makes way for the free and unobstructed play of the charitable spirit. But our charity organization societies have done more than prepare the way; they have thrown themselves with enthusiasm into all those forms of charitable activity which serve as effective substitutes for relief. They have developed thrift agencies, such as stamp savings, home savings, and provident loan societies; they have developed work-rooms and other forms of industrial training; they have been leaders in tenement-house reform and improved sanitation; they have aided the movements for the protection of neglected childhood, by resisting the needless breaking up of families and by securing compulsory education and child-labor laws. Their influence upon legislation has not been confined to the work of organizing relief by suppressing street-begging and vagrancy, and abolishing public outdoor relief. They have advocated many other measures of reform; recently they have tried to protect the poor by public regulation of the chattel-loan companies, pawn-shops, and intelligence offices. They have gone so far, and have shown themselves so friendly to social changes which clearly will make the poor better off,

that they have been criticized for not going farther. But charity organization has never pretended to have a complete social program. It recognizes gladly that there are other and more powerful social forces in the world that are working for its regeneration; but it affirms that charity, too, is a great social force. Its own task is to do what it can to make this force more effective, and it will not abandon this task for any other, however attractive; in the accomplishment of its chosen work it co-operates heartily with workers of every variety of social belief.

Even in its own field, charity organization claims no monopoly, for a number of other agencies, such as the state charities aid associations and the more progressive state boards of charities, divide with it now its difficult task. This division of work can not always be defined with absolute clearness, but the field peculiar to our charity organization societies would seem to be the organization of charity, as distinguished from the organization of charities. What people feel and believe and, from deepest conviction, must do, when confronted with the woe of the world, that is charity. The institutions that they have built up, often from this profound conviction, but often, too, from very different motives, those are charities. Charitable institutions and societies need to be reformed, and no one can ignore the great service done to charity by such reformations. But institutions do not stay reformed unless the individ-

uals controlling them are themselves controlled by a compelling love for the needy, and this love is not a compelling love at all unless it is fed by intimate knowledge of and contact with the lives of the poor.

Friendly
Visiting.

Everything connected with charity organization—its method of co-operation, of investigation, and of registration—tends to bring to light opportunities for good, constructive work in the homes of the poor, and every part of its work, from the minutest detail up to the widest educational propaganda, assumes new significance to the worker who has used these opportunities for constructive work as a means of giving to the charitable "completer and completer entrance into the lives of the suffering and needy." Denison saw one side of this opportunity when he wrote, years ago, "How many thousands of paupers have lived and died, and been buried at public expense, whom a little friendly advice, a little search for friends, or relations, some pains taken to find proper work, when the first application to the board [of poor law guardians] was made, would have lifted out of the mire and set on the rock of honest industry!" And Phillips Brooks saw the other side of the opportunity when he wrote of a vision of what the relations of the rich and poor in a great city may become; a vision "in which no soul shall be satisfied until, to some other soul which is personally its care it shall be giving the best that God

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has given it, making use of all nobler gifts richly and freely, but always with a purpose, never lost sight of, never forgotten, of bringing character, the life of God, into the life of one more of His children."

Our societies neglect their greatest opportunity to develop charity when they neglect to organize groups of volunteer visitors to the homes of the poor. The chief purpose of friendly visiting is often misunderstood. It is not the meeting of present emergencies, but the development of the charitable spirit through personal contact and the establishing of friendly relations. That blunders are made in such relations, that they are not uniformly successful and helpful, has been remarked with solemn iteration. But no form of human relation, friendship not excluded, is uniformly successful, and it would be astonishing indeed if a form of friendliness that had been so generally neglected were an exception. Some claim that friendly relations between people of different incomes, different surroundings, and different ethical standards are impossible. To this we can only reply that some of our societies have been the means of bringing many people of widely different social standards into continuous friendly relation through friendly visiting; our experience extends over twenty years and has passed the stage of experiment. We have not found these differences of income and manners and ethical ideals an insurmountable barrier to mutually helpful acquaintance.

The differences are too great; we long to see them grow less as time goes on; but to exaggerate their importance is to check the development of that very spirit which will help, as we believe, to destroy differences.

Education. A society with a force of volunteer visitors under enthusiastic and intelligent leadership strengthens its educational work in two ways. Every visitor who acquires convictions as well as experience becomes a centre of educational influence in the community, and all the work of the society and of its paid workers is stimulated and improved by close contact with such earnest volunteers.

Education must be the watchword of our societies, if they are to aid in the development of charity. Charitable specialists are inclined to have a certain contempt for what they call "amateurs" in charity. This attitude, though easy to understand, would be an inconsistent one for an agent of a charity organization society, who should have infinite patience with every impulse, every little flickering flame of interest, that is sincerely charitable. This educational motive has prompted our societies to use freely all the usual methods of propaganda. They publish books and pamphlets, they establish periodicals, they hold frequent public meetings, they make their way into pulpits, theological seminaries, and universities, and recently they have organized a school of philanthropy

Students of sociology owe to charity organization their most trustworthy data concerning the causes of poverty; and this co-operation is opening new avenues for the development of charity.

This has been an attempt to state the aims and methods rather than the results of charity organization. We have seen that the human need which it strives to meet is the need of a more strenuous and socially helpful ideal in charity. Has it met this need? Is it meeting it? A strong case could be made for the

affirmative by the simple statement of work actually accomplished by individual societies. But the charity organizationist is inclined, from the very nature of his creed, to look to the future. Failures there have been, and partial successes not a few. But if we keep our aim clearly in view and never permit ourselves to be swamped by details, charity organization will play an important part in the further development of the charitable spirit; and the charitable spirit, as we believe, is going to make this world of ours a better world to live in.

THE PENAL ASPECTS OF DRUNKENNESS:

REPORT OF THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE APPOINTED BY THE MAYOR OF BOSTON.¹

BY EDWARD CUMMINGS.

A specific contribution to the study of the perplexing and widespread problems of drunkenness is the recent "report of the advisory committee on the penal aspects of drunkenness, appointed by the mayor of Boston." It is published by the city of Boston as "Document 158—1899." Prefacing the report is the

emphatic message of approval with which Mayor Quincy transmitted the report to the city council,—sustaining the unsparing criticism of the committee in regard to the legal, financial, and moral anomalies in the prevailing methods of dealing with persons arrested for drunkenness; cordially indorsing the remedial rec-

¹ In view of the special character of this report as a "city document," it is interesting to observe that the committee is composed of specialists carefully selected with reference to the manifold aspects of the subject,—legal and scientific, theoretical and practical, financial and moral. The chairman, Mr. Joseph G. Thorp, is president of the Massachusetts prison association and thoroughly conversant with the legal and legislative aspects of penal reform in Massachusetts; the secretary, Edward Cummings, is professor of sociology in Harvard university; other members of the committee are Mr. John Koren, well known as publicist and statistician in this field in connection with the work of the Committee of Fifty; Prof. F. Spencer Baldwin, of Boston university; the Rev. Frederick B. Allen, Miss Annette P. Rogers, Mrs. Rachel E. S. Thorndike, and Mr. James F. Wise. Copies of the report are to be had on application to the Mayor's Advisory Committee on the Penal Aspects of Drunkenness, 64 Pemberton square, Boston.—THE EDITORS.

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ommendations of the committee for an immediate extension and thorough organization of what is known as the probation system of dealing with drunkards by means of probation officers especially appointed by the courts; and calling upon the authorities of the city and the public generally to lend their support to such legislative action as may be required to carry the principal recommendations into effect.

Acting under the authority of the mayor, the committee has made full use of its exceptional facilities for study and investigation; and no considerations of time, labor, or reasonable expense have been allowed to interfere with the completeness of the work.

The committee has made a careful study of existing conditions. They have examined all available official statistics, and have supplemented these by statistical investigations of their own from official sources. They acknowledge with hearty thanks the generous co-operation of officials responsible for the administration of existing laws, judges, probation officers, police officials, and heads of penal institutions. They are indebted to the overseers of the poor and to representatives of the leading charitable organizations of Boston for valuable information and suggestions, and they are under obligations to leading medical authorities for much valuable expert advice. The committee has sought all available assistance from the experience of other states and countries. In a word, it has endeavored to take advantage of all accessible sources of information and suggestion.

Finally, the permanent interest of

the inquiry for general readers and for other localities is further enhanced by the avowed purpose of this preliminary report to lay special emphasis upon those general principles and fundamental considerations which should underlie all detailed recommendations and local peculiarities of procedure, however varied.

There is, therefore, ground for Mayor Quincy's contention that—

This carefully considered report, made unanimously by a representative committee whose members are well qualified to make a valuable analysis of the workings of existing methods of dealing with the punishment of drunkenness and ascertaining their defects, should prove an interesting public document, not only in Boston, but elsewhere, and should lead to the adoption of more rational methods of dealing with this important problem.

The first thing which strikes even the most casual inquirer is the extraordinary volume of arrests for drunkenness in the city of Boston and the state of Massachusetts. The total for the state in 1898 was 62,754; of which Suffolk county furnished 26,901,—26,157 of these belonging to what is, strictly speaking, Boston proper. In other words, drunkenness accounts for sixty-two per cent of the total number of arrests in Boston during the year in question,—a rate of nearly fifty arrests for drunkenness per 1,000 inhabitants. But far from being exceptionally high, examination of the statistical tables covering the last decade shows that this is the lowest rate per 1,000 in ten years, the highest being 75.21 per 1,000 in 1892, with a correspond-

ing total of 33,698, or sixty-nine per cent of the total number of arrests in the city.

It is startling facts like these which account for the anomalous and unenviable reputation of Boston when compared with cities like Chicago, New York, Philadelphia, and St. Louis. For, while considerably more than half the arrests made in Boston in twelve months are for drunkenness, in St. Louis, for example, only one-sixth of the total number is for this offence. On the other hand the inferences ordinarily drawn from such comparisons are obviously misleading; and there is ample justification for the contention of this report that comparative statistics of arrest,—taken by themselves,—furnish no reliable measure of the amount of drunkenness in different localities at the same time, or in the same locality at different times.

What such statistics do furnish, however, is some measure of the comparative severity with which public opinion and officers of the law deal with the offence of public drunkenness. Massachusetts is one of the few states in which public drunkenness is a punishable offence without regard to accompanying disorder or breach of the peace; and the law is enforced by a public sentiment which is reflected in the promptness of the police in making arrests,—though of late there has been some relaxation of public opinion and official severity in favor of milder methods.

Granting, then, the exceptional character of these local standards of

propriety in the matter of public drunkenness, the question next arises as to the adequacy or inadequacy of the statutory provisions for dealing with the large and peculiar class of offenders thus brought within criminal jurisdiction. Fortunately Massachusetts legislation and public opinion have not been stultified by merely drastic efforts at repression. Serious, persistent, and, on the whole, successful efforts, have been made to provide the necessary machinery—police, judicial, and institutional—and the necessary flexibility of procedure for dealing with the peculiarities of this special body of offenders. So far as permissive aspects of the statutes are concerned there is little left to be desired. The statutes give the courts the fullest opportunity to learn the true nature of each case and the largest discretion in dealing with it according to its needs in a great variety of ways, such as simple discharge, or conditional release in care of a probation officer responsible to the court, or fine, or a longer or shorter term of imprisonment in one of a variety of institutions. Theoretically, indeed, there would seem to be nothing in the way of an intelligent treatment of these cases in accordance with the dictates of individual justice and social expediency.

Not only are the provisions of the law good, judged by contemporary standards; they unquestionably embody some of the most hopeful and universally commended principles of humane and scientific procedure. This is notably true of what is known

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as the probation system, whereby the courts are permitted to suspend sentence and place offenders under the personal guardianship and supervision of a special officer appointed by the court. This probation officer is a direct appointee of the court, responsible solely to the court, and absolutely free from many complications which beset officers subject to political influence. He may be regarded as the confidential adviser of the judge, on the one hand, and of the prisoner on the other. In his former capacity he investigates the cases before they come into court.

It is in no small degree the evidence thus hurriedly collected in regard to individuals, families, and previous industry or sobriety, or the reverse, that enables the judge to face with greater confidence the almost impossible task assigned to him, helps him to individualize in some degree the monotonous batches of drunks daily brought before him, and to decide with more intelligence the all-important question as to the effect of fine, imprisonment, probation, or discharge upon the well-being of the prisoner himself, and upon the well-being of the family, or others dependent upon him, or responsible for him, and upon the well-being of society at large.

So far as the facts in the case warrant the experiment, the court is then at liberty to suspend the ordinary forms of punishment by fine or imprisonment, and place the prisoner in the personal charge of the probation officer for a specified period of weeks or months,—with the explicit understanding that good conduct will secure a favorable report from the officer and set the pro-

bationer free; while lapse from good conduct will lead to rearrest and speedy sentence.

The probation officer thus stands for leniency, for another opportunity to escape the personal disgrace and the vicarious suffering of family and friends which imprisonment or fine, or both, must often involve; he stands for another chance at reformation under the powerful stimulus of the personal, friendly guardianship of an officer of the law; for another chance to strengthen the will and develop the power of self-control, aided by the most effective deterrent yet devised—conditional and suspended punishment. For experience shows conclusively that a paternal solicitude, which is invested with the dignity of the law and the authority of the courts, often has weight and influence where the ordinary and unofficial forms of moral suasion are of no avail.

If now we turn from the theoretical possibilities presented by the law to the actual disposition of cases by the courts, the congratulatory aspects of the inquiry suddenly give place to surprise and righteous indignation. For the tragedy and pathos of the existing situation are chiefly to be found in precisely this contrast between what might be done and what is done; between what is obviously contemplated in the provisions of the statutes and what actually takes place in the courts and houses of correction; between what is demanded in the name of individual justice, public welfare, business economy, common morality, and common sense, and what can only be explained as a result of professional conservatism, institutional inertia,

mechanical routine, obsolete theory, false economy, distrust of innovation, and, in short, absence of that *esprit du corps* and business-like organization and co-operation which is absolutely necessary in order to focus the undoubted ability and intelligence of judicial and administrative officials upon the great problems of penal discipline.

Examine for a moment the actual disposition of cases in the municipal courts of Boston for the year 1898:

	Number.	Per cent.
Released,	12,893	51.02
Fined,	7,026	27.80
Imprisoned,	4,028	15.94
Placed on probation,	1,271	5.03
Defaulted,	59	0.21
	<hr/> 25,277	<hr/> 100

More than half are released without sentence, and for the most part wisely, in absence of any proof that they have exceeded the maximum allowance of two arrests for drunkenness during the preceding twelve months, and on the justifiable assumption that arrest, temporary imprisonment, and arraignment in court is punishment enough for a large number of cases. Only 5 per cent, or the insignificant total of 1,271, were placed in charge of the fourteen probation officers serving in the eight municipal courts. Imprisonment accounts for 4,028, and fine, with the alternative of imprisonment for non-payment, for 7,026 more. In other words, the penalty which has most to commend it is used most sparingly, and those penalties which are confessedly most dangerous, demoraliz-

ing, and extravagant are used with reckless freedom. But the real iniquity of such a wholesale miscarriage of justice by the gratuitous preference of bad penalties to good ones does not appear until we push the analysis a step further, and discover the astounding fact that of the 8,458 persons committed for drunkenness to the Suffolk county institutions (including those from Chelsea) during the year ending September 30, 1898, 4,285, or more than fifty-three per cent, were imprisoned for non-payment of fines and costs. Moreover, a conservative estimate indicates that upwards of seventy per cent of all those imprisoned in both ways (by sentence and for non-payment) serve short sentences, — of less than thirty days. And, finally, we observe that 8,447 commitments to the house of correction at Deer island—and ninety-five per cent of all persons committed for drunkenness in Suffolk county are sent to "the island"—represented only 5,444 individuals; there being 3,003 recommitments within the year, with a strong probability that more than half these recommitments were for the fourth and subsequent offences, and with the certainty that some of the familiar and institutionalized rounders literally reckoned their periodic returns to comfortable headquarters at the island by scores. Add to this the fact that the estimated cost for the arrest and maintenance of drunkards in Suffolk county was \$339,502.86, with a compensating income from fines of \$23,-

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490.78, and the outlines are tolerably complete.

Observe the result. First, fines; second, short sentences; third, an institutionalized or rounder class; fourth, a net annual expenditure of \$316,012.08, in striking contrast with a niggardly appropriation of less than \$25,000 for probation work.

In justification of the prevalent use of fines, coupled with the usual alternative of immediate imprisonment for non-payment—there is nothing to be said.

To the rich minority the infliction of a fine is no punishment, and is equivalent to immediate release. On the other hand, there is something essentially unreasonable and absurd in the effort to collect a fine from men and women who have just spent their earnings in a drunken debauch. Such a demand on the morning after arrest is in case of many working people a formal mockery; and the imprisonment which is yearly meted out to thousands of our poorer citizens for failure to make such immediate payment is little less than imprisonment for debt under peculiarly exasperating circumstances. Omitting for a moment the facts elicited by a careful inquiry—that fines when they are paid generally come out of the wrong persons, such as wives, mothers, and children, or still worse, represent a first mortgage which the local politician has placed upon his client—there is every argument in favor of placing the offenders whom it is deemed desirable to punish by a fine in care of a probation officer for a longer or shorter period, pending the earning and the paying of that fine.

With regard to the demoralizing

effects of the short sentence, competent observers are everywhere of one mind. To quote but a single passage, Enrico Ferri, the distinguished Italian criminologist, says:

A few days in prison, mostly in association with habitual criminals, can not exercise any deterrent influence.

On the contrary they are attended by disastrous effects, by destroying the serious character of justice, relieving prisoners of all fear of punishment, and consequently driving them to relapse, under the influence of the disgrace already suffered, and of the corrupting and compromising association with habitual criminals in prison. The results of these short terms, indeed, which impose about the same restriction on liberty as an attack of indigestion, or a heavy fall of snow, are so manifest that the objection to them is now almost unanimous.¹

With regard to the rounder, he is an almost inevitable product of the existing system.

Let no one misunderstand this pitiful wretch,—the "rounder," physically and morally debauched, is the product of the existing system. He represents the closing act in a moral tragedy, in which society plays the villain in the guise of justice and law, and the poor man is the victim, with the imprisonment of a hitherto respectable first offender for the first official act in the tragedy; the corrupt and compromising associations of the prison for the second act; tainted reputation and decreased earning capacity for the third; discouragement and relapse for the fourth; and so on to the end of the miserable business,—first moral and then physical death.

The remedy is obvious.

In the midst of much conflict of

¹ "Criminal sociology," p. 269.

opinion and apparent contradiction in fact, it is a source of profound satisfaction to find on all sides a cordial agreement in regard to a matter of fundamental importance. Such agreement it is the satisfaction of this committee to report in regard to what is known as the probation system.

It would be difficult to exaggerate the universal cordiality with which probation work is indorsed by competent observers, who represent almost every possible point of view, official and unofficial. Systematic efforts have been made to secure the unbiased opinions of representatives of those groups of people who in their public or private capacity are entitled to speak with authority in this matter—judges, police officers, heads of penal institutions, chaplains, charity experts, and private citizens familiar with the concrete results of probation in the lives and homes of drunkards, theoretical students of methods and results in other localities and countries. However diversified the views of these specialists and observers may be in many respects, personal and independent observation and experience have persuaded them of the deterrent and reformatory value of probation in dealing with large classes of persons arrested for drunkenness, and of the desirability of steadily extending the scope and volume of probation work.

The conclusions and recommendations of the committee are therefore briefly summarized as follows:

It will be observed that the classes of offenders here considered are roughly divided into the following groups:

First of all the large class of accidental and of first offenders, who under the present practice of the courts are commonly discharged and, with occasional exceptions,

obviously require only the exemplary warning furnished by arrest, a night in jail, and arraignment in court. For the exceptional cases referred to, probation or probationary fine may serve still further to reinforce the warning. This whole group, it will be remembered, constitutes more than fifty per cent of the total number of arrests for drunkenness in Suffolk county.

Second, the smaller class of occasional offenders, presumably on the road to habitual inebriety, and calling for the most intelligent sympathy and treatment. It is here that the restraint, encouragement, and personal influence of probation, and in rarer cases of probationary fines, are most needed and most effective.

Third, the still smaller, but more distinctly pathological, group of habitual and of periodical drunkards. Here the restraining influence of probation is obviously less likely to produce permanent results; and it is this class which makes the strongest appeal for the more systematic and scientific rescue work of asylum treatment. Unhappily, at present the frequent application of fines and consequent short-term imprisonment to persons in this critical condition only hastens the work of demoralization.

Fourth, the smallest and most pathetic residual group of confirmed inebriates. For the small minority of young offenders belonging to this group every consideration of humanity urges the exhaustion of every deterrent influence and the most thorough asylum treatment before turning to the last resort of prolonged imprisonment. For the great majority of this group, including the "rounders" and incorrigibles who infest our public institutions, permanent detention under an indeterminate sentence, and under condi-

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tions which protect them and society from further degradation, is the only logical treatment.

However reluctant public opinion may be to sanction such heroic treatment, it must not be forgotten that there is in every great community a residual group of incurables and incorrigibles calling for special and systematic treatment, in their own interest no less than in the interest of society. Individual welfare and social welfare, individual justice and social justice, unite in demanding that the unfortunate who has lost the power of self-control shall be protected against his own degrading weakness, and that society shall be relieved in part of the danger and the contagion of his example and the hereditary transmission of weakness to pauperized and degenerate children. Such ends a monastic régime of wholesome discipline, labor, recreation, and improvement can alone accomplish.

Finally, it must be fully admitted that such a comparatively simple classification can not pretend to be exhaustive. It is one of the complexities of the situation, calling for

the largest exercise of wisdom by the courts, that in all these groups cases of drunkenness are not infrequently complicated by criminal conduct, so that they can not be disposed of as simple cases of intoxication. Doubtless such complications in some measure account for seeming anomalies in the punishment of persons nominally under arrest for drunkenness. Moreover, in practice these groups overlap, and not a few cases are so complicated and obscure as to defy accurate diagnosis and classification.

. . . . In unity is strength. Once the judicial and institutional experts abandon their traditional isolation and professional reserve, and focus their intelligence upon the problem of punitive discipline and reform, once the citizens of the democracy make a personal application of the question, "Am I my brother's keeper?" and accept their individual responsibility for the conduct of their public institutions, nothing can stand in the way of the triumph of those moralizing aims and principles which must be the very groundwork of social welfare.

ORGANIZED CHARITY AT WORK.

Twentieth year of the associated charities of Boston.

Eighteenth year of the charity organization society of Baltimore.

Fifty-sixth year of the New York association for improving the condition of the poor.

Fortieth year of the St. Louis provident association.

Twenty-fifth year of the united Hebrew charities of New York.

Twelfth year of the charity organization society of Denver.

Fifth year of the federation of Jewish charities of Boston.

The annual reports of the principal societies engaged in the administration and organization of relief are again in circulation. It will be convenient for purposes of review to group seven of these, whose reports happen to be in hand at the same time. The existence of additional societies of a similar kind in Philadelphia, New York, Chicago, New Orleans, San Francisco, and other cities is not overlooked. Their reports teach other and interesting lessons, to which the REVIEW intends to give due attention, as it has in the past. The three charity organization societies and the four relief associations enumerated afford quite as great a diversity of experiences, observations, and conclusions as it is practicable to review at one time.

Denver.

The Denver society is unique in its constitution. It is an associated charities in the sense that it has incorporated within itself fifteen distinct societies, besides its central office, which appears to be the same as what is elsewhere known as the "charity organization society" or "associated charities." The

treasurer of the entire organization received from the city an appropriation of \$9,500, and from collections a little over \$14,000. Of this amount \$4,800 was expended in the administration of the central office, and sums varying from \$37.50 for the homeopathic free dispensary to \$3,600 for the orphans' home were distributed to the constituent societies. In the report of the executive committee it is announced that during the severe weather of last winter the central office promptly met every case of need. It is further explained, however, that the public does not sufficiently distinguish between "county" and "emergency" cases, only the latter being within the province of the central office.

For those who live at a distance from Denver the most important paragraph in this report is that which refers to the shipping of people from other cities to Denver "with no apparent motive except to get rid of them." This treatment is justly regarded by the executive committee as uncharitable and weak. Measures have been taken to discourage it. The policy adopted is

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to return them to their homes, at the same time forwarding a pointed letter to the authorities of the home cities expressing disapproval of their course. Furnishing transportation, however, is recognized to be a wise way of helping the unfortunate in some instances, and 423 half-rate tickets were provided by the Denver society within the year.

St. Louis. The St. Louis provident association makes prominent its statement of principles, objects, and methods. This statement covers, in the words of the president's report, "the entire theory and practice of modern scientific charity." This is an ambitious attempt, and if it succeeds in considerable measure it is because the association is content with what is chiefly a negative statement, although a program which embraces efforts to establish a bureau of information, to organize friendly visitors, to promote social and sanitary reforms, to collect and diffuse knowledge on all subjects connected with the relief of the poor, and to promote school attendance, ought not, perhaps, to be so described. The criticism which may be urged is that while it begins with a reference to "persons who are proper claimants upon the care of this association," it nowhere explains exactly who these persons are, nor does the report lay down a clear statement of the principles upon which aid is extended to those who are its proper beneficiaries.

It is an extraordinary fact that, since the rise of the charity organiza-

tion societies, the older associations, which were either relief societies alone, or at least gave their attention largely to the relief of distress, have had a tendency to neglect their relief departments. We do not mean that they have disbursed a smaller amount, or that they have necessarily done their work less carefully and conscientiously. We know the opposite to be the case. But, in their annual reports, they have either kept it in the background, or they have reported it without that degree of confidence and clearness of statement which appeals to thoughtful students and reasonable citizens, and which always accompanies work that has heart in it. Witness such widely diverse reports as those of the social scheme of the salvation army, the work for dependent children by the New York charity organization society, the exposition of the educational value of clubs in the latest report of the university settlement. We must go back half a century to find anything corresponding to this in relief work. The first reports of the New York association for improving the condition of the poor sharply distinguish between the families who bear the "corporation mark" and those who bear the "association mark."

These reports then proceed to lay down with great explicitness and evident conviction the principles upon which relief is to be administered. It is scarcely too much to say that we have done "naught but copy them ill ever since." Industrial enterprises, preventive schemes, and

reform measures are excellent, but associations which expend a large share of their funds in relief should not be too diffident regarding their relief departments, and should to an increased extent tell us their general conclusions, and present data that will enable others to draw conclusions of their own as to what should be done, and what can be done, in relieving the various kinds of distress which they encounter.

New York
A. I. C. P.

The New York association for improving the condition of the poor in its tables and statistics makes a contribution in this direction which gives promise that by another year the body of the report will supplement the statistics by writing out their lessons so that all may understand them. It seems that within the year 326 consumptives were brought to the notice of the association. This evidently has a bearing upon the active part taken by the association in the movement for a state sanatorium. If, however, the experience of the visitors with the families of consumptives could be set forth more fully, it would be a gain. Do the afflicted members of such families early become a burden? If breadwinners, can they be persuaded, and if necessary aided, to give up work temporarily while the disease is still curable? How great is the danger of infection to other members of the family? It may be said that this is a question for medical experts. So it is, but a relief agency must reach a decision

as to whether the danger is so great that aid ought not to be given except on condition of a separation of the consumptive from his family, and medical expert opinion on such questions will be formulated only on the demand of those who are responsible for the disbursement of relief.

It is interesting that over 1,000 applicants were referred to other sources as well as aided by the association for improving the condition of the poor.

An illustration of another kind of information which it is desirable to have is found in the report of the committee which has charge of the association's labor bureau:

Several of the men registered with us had previously tried to secure employment through the ordinary employment agencies. From them it has been learned that these agencies charge a fee according to the character of the position sought, the smallest fee being fifty cents for registration, with fifteen per cent of the first month's salary, and the largest fee \$5, with fifty per cent of the first month's salary. One applicant said that he sought a position as engineer, and was told that he could have a position if he were willing to pay \$5 down and \$30 from his first month's wages, this amount to be paid at the end of the first two weeks of his engagement.

Another fact recorded in these statistics, although not commented upon, is that the ages of men placed in positions are chiefly from fifteen to thirty-five, only sixty-six out of a total of 443 being over this age.

The most important innovation, however, is a table showing the

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sources of reference of all applicants. In a total of 8,211 applicants, 1,411 were referred by contributors to the association, 156 by hospitals, dispensaries, etc., 287 by the city mission and tract society, 1,579 by the department of public charities, 456 by the charity organization society, 772 by churches, clergymen, etc., 353 by private individuals other than contributors, 467 by societies other than those enumerated, and 2,730 were personal applications. Such a table as this showing fluctuations over a period of years would be of distinct value. The financial statements published in the report are a model of clearness. The usual defect of such statements is that they are too condensed to be intelligible.

The united Hebrew charities having celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary, having, like the St. Louis provident association, moved into a new building within the year, and having installed a new manager, the annual report naturally reflects the thoughtful consideration of its work which these events have inspired in its officers and members. Its disbursements for the year were \$136,332—exceeding those of any other similar agency in any country. The principal items of expenditure are: Relief, \$41,061.14; transportation, \$15,732.10; medical relief, \$7,679.84; supplies, \$12,423.19; pensions, \$21,938; employment department, \$5,287.69, and salaries, \$15,948.65. Other considerable items are for the industrial school of the society and for free burials.

In the history of the society sketched by the manager one fact is recorded which may have its lesson for other "associated" charities. At the outset the governing body was representative of the five constituent societies. After nine years it was found advisable to make the only radical change which has been made in the fundamental organization of the society, by providing that one-half of the trustees should be elected from the members at large.

The most important subject to be mentioned in a survey of the work of this society is, of course, the problem of dealing with the rush of immigration from eastern Europe since 1881. Upon this subject Dr. Frankel says:

At first we refrained from taking active steps in their behalf through lack of means, officials, and accommodations, but we were represented in the management of the Hebrew emigrant aid society that met the brunt of the problem for the two years of its existence, and subsequently, upon the slackening of the inroad of Russian arrivals, this society provided for the wants of all until 1890. In that year the Jewish immigration at this port had risen from 27,000, in 1886; 25,000, in 1887, to 32,000, and in the following year it reached the remarkable number of 62,574 souls.

In 1890 was formed the Baron de Hirsch fund, among whose trustees have been, from the first, members of our board, and we have co-operated with them, receiving from that fund a yearly appropriation ample to meet the distress that was brought before us, and to provide permanent employment and insure a livelihood for our unfortunate brethren, and we have further the assurance of the

fund that any proper movement that we can undertake for the substantial aid of Russian and Roumanian immigrants will not fail for lack of support from this trust, as well as from the Jewish colonization society that was founded by the late Baron and Baroness in Europe.

Happily, since 1892, the immigration has not been too extensive for existing agencies to attend to without any resort to special committees or without any necessity for appealing for special aid.

This report also has made a notable beginning in the task of analysis and interpretation of its statistics. For example, a series of tables is given, the purpose of which is to show to what extent relief disbursed on the principles of organized charity tends to pauperize its recipients. An investigation was made during the past summer of 1,000 beneficiaries, all of whom had originally applied for assistance in the fall of 1894. It appears that of these one thousand, 602 have not applied since December, 1894; 728 have not applied since December of 1895; 797 since December, 1896; 850 since December of 1897, and 933 since December of 1898. This leaves 67 applicants now on the books who received continuous assistance for upwards of five years. Nearly all of these are said to be widows with small children, respectable aged and infirm persons, deserted wives, consumptives, or families in which the wage-earner is incapacitated by illness. Other interesting facts which can be drawn from the records are given, and in addition a reinvestigation was made of 100 of the appli-

cants who have not applied since December, 1894, in order to ascertain their present condition. Of these sixty-six could not be found, twenty-two were originally given transportation, and twelve were found to be self-supporting.

**Boston
Federation
of Jewish
Charities.**

The federation of Jewish charities of Boston has been in existence for five years, but the present report is the third that has been printed, the committee having felt even last year that, owing to the hard times and the constant demands upon the treasury of the federation, more good could be done with their money by feeding the hungry and clothing the poor than by publishing a pamphlet, however instructive. One is reminded by such decisions as this of Captain Mahan's impatience with certain brief reports of naval engagements, such as, "We have met the enemy and they are ours." They no doubt enhance the fighter's reputation as a hero, but they are a vexation of spirit to the naval historian and to the future naval strategist who want to know something authoritative about the details.

Among the useful facts mentioned in the present report is that the financial results of federation have been disappointing. It was hoped and expected that the donations would be fully as large as had been those of the individual organizations, but this expectation has not been realized. This experience should be duly weighed by the originators of the scheme for a

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charity trust about which there has been some recent discussion in the New York newspapers. The president of the federation confesses that if it were not for the ball given annually by the Purim association he would be at a loss to know what could be done to keep up the different associations which constitute the federation. The Jewish charities of both New York and Boston dwell upon the frequency and the serious consequences of desertion of families by the father or mother.

Baltimore.

The report of the Baltimore charity organization society is characteristically educational in tone, its keynote for this year being a searching inquiry as to the value of the work of a charitable society upon family life and family relations. What an obvious and necessary examination this is! How legitimate as a test and how fruitful in its bearing on the estimate which we should put upon its various forms of charitable effort! How provoking to the rest of us that we have not thought of it! And yet, next year and the year after the Baltimore people will spring similar surprises and call forth similarly half envious congratulations. Here the suggestion is, however, and if we are wise we will use it—not in preparing an annual report, but in a thoughtful consideration of the channels into which charitable energies are to be directed.

The report enumerates some of the obstacles within and outside the family, not overlooking the family

histories in which the chief cause of weakened family ties would seem to be the hardness of the human heart. While the real adjustment of human relations, because of neglect of children for their parents, neglect of parents for their young, abuse by husbands, inconsiderate and ill-considered actions of wives, and the refusal of brothers and sisters to recognize the claims and obligations of kinship, is by no means peculiar to poverty alone, it is pointed out that the annals of the poor are rendered in this regard less short and less simple than other annals by the interference of charity. The experience of the society in overcoming the evil of neglect by relatives, in meeting the conditions caused by lack of employment, by sickness, and by degrading surroundings, and its efforts to extirpate begging and imposture are passed in review consistently from the standpoint of their effect upon family life, including the possible restoration of the natural ties of kindred where they have been broken by vagrancy, and the necessity, in extreme cases, of breaking up by legal measures that which should be a home, but which has been transformed into a breeding place of vice and misery.

There is included a special report on charitable work during the blizzard. This, together with the history of the same week in New York, which is incorporated into the report of the central council of the New York charity organization society, should be studied with care by all professional charity workers,

and read as well by the "giving public," who finally decide what is to be done both in emergencies and in ordinary times. In this connection, the letter from Mrs. C. R. Lowell and others, reprinted from *Charities* as an appendix to the New York report, should not be overlooked. The two lessons of the blizzard, as a whole, are the need of an adequate relief fund before the emergency arises, and the need of charitable people who will give time and thought, as well as money, to permanently improving the condition of the poor. To prevent suffering, more money is needed by the relief societies. To aid in placing the poor beyond the need of charity, both money and workers are needed by the charity organization societies.

The Baltimore report contains also a special report on school attendance by Miss Florence E. Pierce, which should have a favorable influence on the movement for a compulsory attendance law in Maryland. Attractive illustrations are given of the new neighborhood house of the charity organization society, occupied by local offices of this society, the association for improving the condition of the poor, the Thomas Wilson fuel-saving society, and the instructive visiting nurse association.

**Boston
Associated
Charities.** The report of the associated charities of Boston opens with a confident, almost triumphant, tone.

Twenty years ago the associated charities of Boston began their task of dealing with distress by organiz-

ing and aiding all the forces in the community willing to co-operate, and of improving the conditions of life. Boston was ready for the new movement, and co-operation of many of the great agencies of churches and individuals has aided its success. Public support has maintained its growing work in all sections of the city; the public press has aided every movement of judicious charity; the churches are co-workers on wise methods of best help to the poor; and during all this period the citizens of Boston and of the suburbs have been offering in growing numbers the voluntary service of friendly visitors to go into the homes of our city poor on missions of persistent, loving service. Boston may feel no small pride in the fact that the number of these friendly visitors, now more than eight hundred, is larger than that of London or New York, or any city in the world.

And yet Mr. Robert Treat Paine, who writes the report as president of the society, is no mere optimist. He recognizes that the destructive task of charity, even in Boston, is tremendous. The computation of the huge residuum is unsparing and scarcely less than appalling. Statistics for the count are borrowed from the police commissioners, the penal institutions commissioner, the children's institutions department, the overseers of the poor, and finally from the registration bureau of the associated charities. From these sources, all accurate, a number is obtained which leaves little doubt that Boston, in the year 1898, had a "submerged tenth," or—not making any allowance for unrecorded criminals or dependents—that nine per cent of its population was par-

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tially or wholly dependent upon public or private charity, or was supported by the public because of crime or insanity.

The report includes a discussion of various specific problems involved in the task of extirpating the conditions from which this residuum is recruited. The closing up of cheap and nasty lodging-houses is placed foremost. Increased vigilance of police officers in suppressing street begging is next emphasized, and in this connection an account is given of the plan of detailing special officers by the police department for this work, as is done in New York. The destruction of the slums and the improvement of the living conditions of the homes of the poor is urged. The almshouse problem is touched upon. The question of public outdoor relief is discussed at length, but is left somewhat as the task of dealing with trusts is finally left by the president's recent message—for the careful consideration of others. We may point out that Mr. Paine has copied from a recent report of Comptroller Coler, of New York city, an appalling but fortunately erroneous total of 50,638 dependent children in the city of New York. That it is an error should have been suggested by the figures quoted by Mr. Paine in the preceding paragraph, and it may easily be demonstrated by comparison with the tables given at the end of the comptroller's report. The actual number is large enough to call forth earnest consideration, as indeed it has, but it is only about one-half

the number given, by what must have been a misprint, in the text of the comptroller's report.

The Boston associated charities have succeeded in a wholly exceptional degree not only in enrolling and retaining the services of a large corps of friendly visitors, but also in making its registration bureau inclusive of the records of the charities, and to a large extent of the relief given by churches. As the society systematically forwards to the co-operating agencies any information which is likely to prove useful to them, the bureau fulfills its objects as a confidential exchange of information among the charities of the city, thus leading to a wiser, more efficient, and helpful administration of relief, both public and private.

A final section of the report on the future tasks of charity embraces the following inspiring program:

Fewer arrests, but more vigilant watchfulness by police to save and keep upright men and boys ready to fall.

Fewer convictions, but ampler development of our splendid system of probation to brace up great numbers who really prefer virtue and hate vice, but are weak.

Fewer tramps, but more work and less temptation and fewer facilities for idle, vicious life.

Fewer children of the slums,—nay, no slums at all, after the powers shall, before long, complete their utter extirpation of these hot-houses of physical disease and moral ruin.

Fewer victims of liquor and fewer dens for their destruction.

Multitudes of weak, weary, sickly stumbling men, women, and children aided by a great army of friendly visitors to rise into happier, healthier, better, and more prosperous life.

THE CARE OF DESTITUTE, NEGLECTED, AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN.¹

(AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.)

BY HOMER FOLKS.

IV—REMOVAL OF CHILDREN FROM ALMSHOUSES.

In tracing the public care of children from 1801 to 1875, we noted the scathing arraignment of the care of children in almshouses by the select committee of the New York senate in 1856. From that time on the conviction spread that the collection of children in almshouses had been a terrible mistake. Ten years later, the first of a series of laws for the removal of children from almshouses was passed. In some cases a different system of caring for children who were public charges was created; in other states, laws were passed prohibiting the sending of children to almshouses, or their retention therein for longer than a certain period, usually thirty, sixty, or ninety days, leaving the local authorities to make such other provision for the children as they might elect. In briefest outline, these laws were as follows:

¹ Synopsis of paper:

- i. The situation in 1801.
- ii. Public care of destitute children. 1801-1875.
- iii. Private charities for destitute children. 1801-1875.
- iv. Removal of children from almshouses.
- v. Public systems, other than almshouse care. 1875-1900.
- vi. Neglected children.
- vii. Private charities for destitute and neglected children. 1875-1900.
- viii. Delinquent children.
- ix. Present tendencies.

In 1866 Ohio passed a law authorizing the establishment of county children's homes, after a favorable vote by the people in each case, to be supported by taxation and managed by boards of trustees appointed by the county commissioners. Three such homes were established between 1866 and 1870; six during the decade 1870-80; thirty-three between 1880 and 1890; and four since 1890. In 1883 a supplementary law was passed prohibiting the retention of children over three years of age in poorhouses, unless separated from the adult paupers. For many years the enforcement of the law was extremely inadequate. In 1898 the age to which children may be kept in almshouses was reduced from three years to one year.

Massachusetts abolished the almshouse department at the state primary school at Monson in 1872, and thus separated the destitute children from adults, so far as state charges were concerned. In 1879 a law was passed requiring overseers of the poor of cities to place destitute children over four

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years of age in families or asylums and provide for their maintenance. In 1887 it was provided that whenever the overseers of any city, except Boston, failed to comply with this law, the state board of lunacy and charity should provide for the children at the expense of such cities. In 1893 the laws of 1879 and 1887 were amended so as to relate to towns as well as cities.

Michigan was the first state to treat the matter in a really comprehensive, effective manner. In 1869 a commission, appointed by the governor, made an exhaustive inquiry into the condition of children in the county poorhouses, and the methods of caring for such children in other states. The report of the commission, submitted in 1871, stated that there were about 600 children under sixteen years of age in poorhouses in Michigan. The degrading influences of such surroundings were pointed out, and action for the removal of the children was suggested. The commission suggested the adoption of one of three plans: first, a state placing-out agency by which dependent children should be removed from the county poorhouses and placed directly in private families; second, the removal of the children to private orphan asylums to be supported therein at state expense; third, the establishment of a state primary school "after the plan of that at Monson, Mass." The commission appeared to favor the second plan, but the legislature proved to be more radical. It disregarded the many requests that were made for state aid to private institutions, and passed a law creating a state public school for dependent children, to which all destitute children in the state who were public charges were to be removed, and from which they were to be placed out in families as soon as possible. The institution was opened at Coldwater, in May, 1874.

In 1875 a law was enacted in New York, through the efforts of the state board of charities, supported by the state charities aid association and others, requiring the removal of all children over three years of age, not defective in body or mind, from poorhouses, and directing that they be placed in families, orphan asylums, or other appropriate institutions, and that the public authorities make provision for their maintenance. This legislation was the culmination of a movement extending over some eight years. The state board of charities, created in 1867, found, on its first examination of the almshouses of the state in 1868, 2,231 children in these institutions, 1,222 being in county poorhouses and 1,009 in the children's departments of the almshouses of New York city and Brooklyn. Efforts were made by this board and by other public-spirited citizens to induce the county boards of supervisors to make other provision for the children, either by placing them in families or by sending them to children's homes and paying their board. In some counties many of the children were, by one or both of these methods, removed from the poorhouses. Nevertheless, at the close of 1874 there were still 2,066 children in almshouses. The number in county poorhouses had been reduced to 593, but in New York city and Brooklyn it had risen to 1,473. The law of 1875 created no machinery for placing out or otherwise providing for the children. The local authorities quite promptly complied with the law, and within two or three years the plan of supporting destitute children at public expense in private institutions became the settled policy of the state. In 1878 the New York law was amended by reducing the age to which children may be re-

tained in almshouses, from three years to two years, and by abolishing the exemption of defective children.

In 1878 Wisconsin passed a law requiring the removal of children from almshouses, but made no other provision for them until eight years later, when, in 1885, it established a state public school for dependent children, following closely the lines of the Michigan system.

In 1883 Pennsylvania enacted a law prohibiting the retention of children between the ages of two and sixteen years, unless feeble-minded or defective, in poorhouses for a longer period than sixty days. The county authorities, being left to make such provision for their children as they might choose, adopted various plans. Most of the larger counties entered into co-operation with the children's aid society of Pennsylvania, under whose care the children were boarded in families at the expense of the counties until permanent free homes were found for them.

In 1883 Connecticut also passed a law directing the establishment of a temporary home for children in each county, and prohibiting the retention of children over two years of age in almshouses. In 1895 a penalty for non-compliance with this law was provided. Unfortunately the law was amended in 1897, so as to permit the retention of children under four years of age in almshouses.

In 1885 Rhode Island established a state home and school for children, and in 1892 made mandatory the removal of all children from almshouses to the state home.

In 1890 Maryland passed a law prohibiting the retention of children between the ages of three and sixteen years, unless mentally defective, in almshouses for a longer period than ninety days. The local authori-

ties, as a rule, sent the children to private institutions, paying for their support.

In 1895 New Hampshire passed a law prohibiting the retention of children between the ages of three and fifteen, except the feeble-minded, in almshouses for a longer period than thirty days. The overseers of the poor and county commissioners were directed to place such children in orphan asylums or in private families. A state board of charities was created by the same statute, and was charged with the duty of enforcing this law.

In 1897 Indiana passed a law prohibiting the retention of all children between the ages of three and seventeen years in any poorhouse after January 1, 1898. A state placing-out agency, under the direction of the state board of charities, was created by the same statute to assist and promote the placing out of children from the various county homes.

In 1899 New Jersey created a state board of children's guardians, in which is vested the custody of all children who become public charges. The law also forbids the retention of children more than one year of age in almshouses for a longer period than thirty days. The children are to be boarded in private families until permanent homes can be found.

The removal of children from almshouses is a lamentable illustration of the slowness with which such reforms proceed. Thirty-three years have passed since Ohio enacted the first law in the United States looking toward the removal of all children from almshouses, but as yet barely a dozen states—about one-fourth of the whole number—have followed her example and even in these states the laws are not, in several cases, fully enforced.

In 1897, an legislature bills relating a provision in almshouses noted about in 1897. ever, and though ver momentum, beyond de and more ter enforce

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In 1897, and again in 1899, the Illinois legislature eliminated from pending bills relating to the care of children, a provision prohibiting their retention in almshouses. Connecticut, as noted above, took a backward step in 1897. These are exceptions, however, and the movement has steadily, though very slowly, gained in momentum, and such legislation will, beyond doubt, become more general and more stringent and will be better enforced as the years pass.

The census of 1880 showed that the actual number of children in almshouses between two and sixteen years of age, in the United States, was 7,770. The earlier censuses did not give this item of information. The census of 1890 showed that the number had been reduced, during the preceding ten years, from 7,770 to 4,987. Considering the increase of twenty-five per cent in the general population, the decrease of thirty-six per cent in the number of children in almshouses is not without encouragement. The number of children between two and sixteen years of age in almshouses to every 100,000 of the total population was reduced from fifteen in 1880 to eight in 1890. Included in the total of 4,987 are large numbers of defective children, and also many children retained in so-called children's asylums connected with almshouses, but in which the children are not immediately associated with adult paupers, a plan which is just a little less objectionable than keeping both classes in the same building. The statistics on this point in the census of 1900 will be awaited with interest.

Contrary to the general opinion, the states in which there were still large numbers of children in almshouses in 1890 are not confined to the south. In fact, as shown by the

following table, the sixteen states which are the worst offenders in this regard include ten of the sixteen states which comprised the union in 1801:

No. children between two and sixteen years of age in almshouses, to every 100,000 of the general population. 1890.

New Hampshire	46
Vermont	27
West Virginia	25
New Jersey	23
Virginia	19
Maine	18
Ohio	17
Rhode Island	16
Massachusetts	15
Indiana	15
Kentucky	14
Montana	12
North Carolina	10
Pennsylvania	8
Illinois	8
Tennessee	8

V.—PUBLIC SYSTEMS OTHER THAN ALMSHOUSE CARE.

The systems adopted in various states for the care of destitute children outside of almshouses may be roughly classified as follows:

a. The state school and placing-out system, adopted by Michigan, Wisconsin, Rhode Island, Minnesota, Kansas, Colorado, Nebraska, Montana, Nevada, and Texas.

b. The county children's home system, adopted by Ohio, Connecticut, and Indiana.

c. The plan of supporting public charges in private institutions, which prevails in New York, California, Maryland, the District of Columbia, and to some extent in several other states.

d. The boarding-out and placing-out system, which is carried on directly by the public authorities in Massachusetts; through a private organization—the children's aid society—in Pennsylvania; and has just

been undertaken by the state authorities in New Jersey.

**The State
Public School
System.**

Although Massachusetts established a state primary school at Monson in 1866, by collecting there all children from the other two state almshouses, and removed the larger part of the adult paupers therefrom in 1872, this institution was only for the care of the "unsettled" poor children. Each city and town still cared for its local poor, including destitute children, in its own way—often in the almshouse.

Michigan was the first state to establish an exclusive state system for the care of all destitute children who become public charges, by collecting them in one central institution, from which they are, as soon as possible, placed out in families. Neither the state nor the local authorities place any children in private institutions, nor make any appropriations to private agencies. The "Michigan plan" has become known far and wide, and has been adopted by a number of other states. During the twenty-five years of its existence, this system has followed closely the lines laid down by its founders. These have already been suggested in part. Children are committed by the judges of probate of the various counties, upon the application of the superintendents of the poor. Subsequent legislation authorized the commitment to the school of neglected and ill-treated children in the same manner. All such children become wards of the state, but may be returned to their parents by the voluntary action of the board of control of the school. The system is under the direction of an unsalaried board of control of three members, appointed by the

governor and serving for a term of six years each, one member being appointed every other year. The state public school, located at Coldwater, is not unlike many other well managed institutions on the cottage plan. At the outset, a system of county agents was established, the governor being authorized to appoint in each county an agent to investigate applications from families desiring to receive children, and to visit the children placed in homes in his county from any of the state institutions. These agents receive a per diem allowance, limited in certain counties to a maximum of \$100, and in other counties, including large cities, to a maximum of \$200 per year. There is also a state agent appointed by the board of control, whose duties are to investigate applications for children, and to visit children who have been placed out. Children of all ages under fourteen years are received at the school, and are retained only until, in the opinion of the superintendent, they are fitted to be placed in homes, and satisfactory homes are found. The average age of the 4,493 children received from the opening of the school in May, 1874, to July 1, 1898, was six and four-fifths years. Sixty-six per cent of the total number were boys. Among the number were 238 colored children and twelve Indian children. About one-third of the whole number, or, to be exact, 1,311, came directly from poorhouses, and 3,182 from the homes of parents, relatives, or others. The census of the institution has varied from 150 to 250. In 1884 it reached 255. On June 1, 1898, it had fallen to 160. The expense of maintaining the school, including salaries of state and county agents, has ranged from \$36,000 to \$45,000 per year. The expenditure for the year ending July 1, 1898, was less than for any

preceding number of families, or vision of during the 1,200. The received school was 1898, in t

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preceding year since 1887. The number of children placed out in families, and remaining under supervision of the school, has varied during the past decade from 900 to 1,200. The total number of children received since the opening of the school were accounted for on July 1, 1898, in the following manner:

Remaining in school July 1, 1898..	159
In families under supervision.....	1,304
Adopted by families.....	426
Girls who have married.....	128
Died:	
At the school.....	94
In families.....	60
Restored to parents.....	154
Declared self-supporting.....	563
Become of age.....	950
Returned to counties.....	275
Returned to counties.....	534

Total number received.....4,493

When the school was established there were about six hundred children in the poorhouses of the state. Although the population of the state increased from 1870 to 1890 nearly seventy-seven per cent, and although laws have been enacted and enforced for the rescue of neglected and ill-treated children, who have thus become wards of the state and inmates of the state public school, the number of children who are public charges actually decreased from 600 in 1874 to 300 in 1890, the latter figure including about one hundred defective children in almshouses.

Minnesota established a similar institution in 1885, copying the Michigan statute in most particulars. The school was opened in December, 1886. One feature of the Michigan plan, the county agent system, was omitted. Reliance was placed upon state agents employed directly by and under the control of the school.

In 1897 the county superintendents of schools were made ex-officio agents of the state public school. The census of the school

has increased slowly but quite steadily. The average census for the year ended July 1, 1898, was 256, as against 159 in the Michigan school for the same period.

The 1,785 received from the opening of the school, December, 1886, to July 1, 1898, are thus accounted for:

Remaining in school July 1, 1898, 257
In families under supervision, 1,045
Adopted by families, 46
Girls who have married, 9
Died, 53
Returned to parents, 104
Self-supporting, 79
Attained majority, 137
Returned to counties, 75

Total number received, 1,785

The average age of the children when received was slightly higher than in Michigan, being 8.16 years, as against 6.8 in Michigan. Of the 1,382 children indentured since the school opened, the following account is given:

	No.	Per cent
In good homes, progressing steadily, doing well . . .	768	56
Not so promising, or in less desirable homes, doing fairly well . . .	435	31
Give no promise of becoming useful, doing poorly . . .	179	13

A special study was made in 1897 and 1898 of 106 children, who had passed seventeen years of age, and one or both of whose parents were known to have been of bad character.

Personal visits were made in each case in order to gain full information. It was found that eighty-three per cent were young people of good character. The investigation covered all children of bad parentage placed in families and now past seventeen years of age.

Wisconsin established a state school in the same year as Minnesota, and also kept largely to the Michigan plan. The school was on the cottage plan, and was opened in November, 1886. The census has been as high as 200, but on Septem-

ber 30, 1898, was only 141. The 1,921 inmates, received from the opening of the school to September 30, 1898, are accounted for as follows:

Remaining in school Sept. 30, 1898,	141
In families under supervision,	1,340
Adopted,	94
Married,	14
Died,	27
Returned to counties,	163
Returned to homes (parents ?),	8
Transferred to other institutions,	77
Run away from homes and not found,	57
	1,921

Rhode Island established its state home and school for children in the same year, 1885, as Minnesota and Wisconsin. The institution was placed under the control of the state board of education, but in 1891 it was placed under the charge of a newly created board of control consisting of seven members. The statute establishing the school was very brief, and left substantially everything to the state board of education. An amending act, passed in 1888, declared that the object of the institution was to provide for neglected and dependent children not recognized as vicious or criminal. The board of education was authorized, in its discretion, to place children in families, and was made the legal guardian of all children admitted to the institution. Placing-out is one of the objects of this institution, but because of the lack of placing-out agents, and also, perhaps, owing to the small size of the state, the placing of children in families has not been carried on as largely as in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. The 530 children received from the opening of the institution in April, 1885, to December 31, 1898, are accounted for in the following manner:

Remaining in home Dec. 31, 1898,	137
Placed in families,	335
Returned to local authorities,	29
Died,	5
Become of age,	2

Run away,
Sent to reform school,

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Kansas established a state home for soldiers' orphans in 1887. As the applications for the admission of soldiers' orphans decreased, the institution was opened to other destitute children by a statute of 1890, which applied to the school the essential features of the Michigan system, except that the county superintendents of schools were made ex-officio its county agents. Gradually the character of the institution has been assimilated to that of the state public schools above described. Of the 190 children in the institution on August 28, 1899, there were 109 soldiers' orphans. Until the institution was fully recognized as a state school for dependent children the state made small appropriations to a number of private institutions.

Colorado established a state home for dependent children, opened in March, 1896. Prior to that time dependent children were county charges, and were either detained in almshouses or placed in private institutions at county expense.

Montana has a state orphans' home, opened in September, 1894. Of the 145 children admitted from that date to December 1, 1898, thirty-three have been placed in families and thirty-four returned to relatives. The last annual report expresses the opinion that it is better to develop an efficient placing-out system than to keep the children and teach them trades.

Nevada also has a state orphanage, established at an earlier date than any other state institution for children except that of Massachusetts, since closed. It was opened in 1864, the year of the admission of Nevada as a state. It is under the control of a board consisting of the state

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surveyor, the state superintendent of public instruction, and the state treasurer. The census varies from seventy-five to one hundred. Children are placed in families occasionally, but this is not regarded as an important feature of the work. Though a strictly state institution, it received a legacy of \$5,000 in 1886 for an industrial department.

Texas, too, has a state orphan asylum, opened in 1889. This institution is endowed by lands set apart for the purpose, when Texas, having seceded from Mexico, was organized as an independent republic, about 1836. The census of the institution on November 1, 1885, was 260. The endowment very evidently tends to encourage the retention, rather than the placing out, of the children.

During, or just after the close of, the civil war, Iowa established three homes for soldiers' orphans. As the numbers decreased two of the homes were closed. In July, 1876, the name of the third was changed to "Iowa soldiers' orphans' home and home for indigent children," and it was opened to all destitute children who were public charges in the state. It was intended that all children in the almshouses should be removed to this institution, but the law was not obligatory. The census of the home was thus divided at various dates:

	Soldiers' Orphans.	Other Destitute Children.
1879	98	44
1887	42	209
1897	297	190

The state of Nebraska made appropriations for a number of years to the home for the friendless at Lincoln, an institution under private management. The state gradually increased its control over the institution as it increased its appropriations, and in 1899 took entire charge of the institution. The governor is to appoint the superintendent, who is to

conduct the institution under rules and regulations prescribed by the board of public lands and buildings.

Eleven states have thus established institutions for dependent children, following more or less closely the Michigan model. Among the undoubted advantages of this plan are the following:

(1.) It offers little or no inducement to parents to throw their children upon the public for support. The fact that the custody of the children is to be vested in state authorities, and that the children are to be removed to an institution at some distance, from which after a brief period they are to be placed in families, discourages parents from parting from their children unless such a course is really necessary. Nor does this requirement, as a rule, work unnecessary hardship. The board of control can relinquish to worthy parents the custody of their children, if such a course becomes desirable, and does so in numerous cases. Furthermore, the fact that sending a child to the state institution involves the transfer of its guardianship to the state authorities, affords a logical and altogether satisfactory division of the field of charitable work, as between the state and private agencies. It is natural and proper that the private institutions should receive children for whom only temporary care is needed. Such a dividing line is not easily established in states in which the subsidy system has been adopted, or in which there is a county home for

children under the care of public authorities in each county. The superintendent of the Minnesota state public school recently reports that "The most important development in private charities for children in this state seems to be a complete change in the functions of such institutions. They have become places for the accommodation of children whose parents wish to place their children in an institution for a short time, until they can take them and care for them again themselves."

(2.) One institution, supported by the state, is much less apt to increase in size indefinitely than a number of similar institutions, each of which is apt to become a centre of local interest and local pride which is more enthusiastic than wise.

(3.) The state is a more intelligent, resourceful, impartial, and efficient administrative unit than local political divisions. It commands a better grade of talent, and as a rule more ample resources. Its institutions are generally less subject to partisan influences than those of cities, counties, or towns.

(4.) The placing-out system, which has been made the most important feature of the best state systems, restores the children more promptly than any other method to the normal life of the family and of the community. In the state institutions there are none of the incentives to retain children unduly, such as are apt to prevail in local institutions, or in private institutions receiving per capita allowances from public funds.

The effective use of the placing-out system not only secures to the children the undoubtedly superior advantages of family life and training, but also diminishes correspondingly the public burden. The amounts spent by the states of Michigan and Minnesota for the care of destitute children seem almost ridiculously small when compared with the amounts expended in other states; yet there is every reason for believing that the needs of the destitute and neglected children are nowhere more adequately met than in those states.

The leading objections that have been urged against the state school system are: That it is subject to the influences of partisan politics, and all the evils of the spoils system; that the trustees, superintendents, officers, and teachers are likely to be selected, not because of fitness, but because of political services or influence; that with every change in the political control of the state, the trustees and officers are likely to be removed, and inexperienced persons of doubtful qualifications placed in charge; and that the plan does not enlist the co-operation and support of the better classes of citizens, who, it is presumed, do not participate actively in politics. These are serious charges, if well founded. It is the opinion of the writer, after careful study of this phase of the subject, that some of the state schools for dependent children have not been wholly free at times from harmful partisan influences, but that such disturbances have been but temporary, and have not seriously impaired the proper

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development of the system, nor endangered the welfare of any considerable number of the children. The Michigan school, after being practically free from partisanship for nearly twenty years, was suddenly, in 1891, deprived of its board of control and placed, with the other charitable and with the penal institutions of the state, under a newly created board of control of a different political complexion. On at least one other occasion it had passed through political upheavals in the state without disturbance. In this case, after two years, the former political conditions returned, and the separate board of control of the school was reestablished. During the twenty-five years of its existence the school has had nine different superintendents, though it is stated on the best of authority that only two of these changes have been due in any degree to politics, and on several occasions superintendents of a different political faith from the board of control have been appointed and retained in office. The new political control, created in 1891, discontinued the state visiting agent,—a most short-sighted step, which resulted in losing track of a number of the placed-out children. It is a question, however, whether the disturbances to which the Michigan state school has been subjected by politics have been more serious than those from which many private institutions suffer, in a correspondingly long period, from the influence of managers of limited experience, or who give but little time or thought to their duties, or who are actuated

by motives akin to those which too often prevail in politics.

The Minnesota institution has had a history of which any institution, public or private, might well be proud. Its original board of control has never been abolished or superseded by any other body. One of the original board of commissioners, appointed to select the site and organize the school, has been from the first president of the board. A former state agent and assistant superintendent of the Michigan institution was made the first superintendent of the Minnesota school, and has remained continuously in charge until the present, and has progressively and consistently developed its work. The esteem in which he and other workers in similar institutions are held by those interested in child-saving work in all parts of the country, is indicated by the fact that he has been appointed chairman of the child-saving section of the twenty-seventh national conference of charities and correction, while the president of the conference will be a former superintendent of the Kansas state institution for children.

The Rhode Island institution is also believed to have been substantially free from partisanship; that of Wisconsin, somewhat less so. While the danger of political interference is a real one, it must be borne in mind that there is an increasing application of the merit system to public charitable institutions; that untoward influences of a character akin to partisanship are not lacking in many private institutions; that in

many states public sentiment is such that it has become "bad politics" to interfere with state institutions, and that the state system possesses many superior advantages, enumerated above, which, in our opinion, far outweigh the dangers arising from politics. On the whole, the state public school for dependent children is undoubtedly the distinctively American contribution to public systems of child-saving work.

Several states, including Pennsylvania, Illinois, Kansas, Ohio, Indiana, Iowa, and Wisconsin have established state homes for soldiers' orphans. Since these institutions were created to meet a special need which, let us hope, is not likely to recur, their work will not be considered in detail in this paper. The decreasing number of applications for admissions to such institutions has already created an interesting problem as to their future. Kansas and Iowa have already solved the difficulty by gradually converting their state soldiers' orphans' homes into state public schools for dependent children. Minnesota and Wisconsin abolished their institutions; the latter state, after maintaining the institution from 1866 to 1876, turned the buildings over to her state university. Illinois could not do better than follow the example of Kansas and Iowa. Efforts in the same direction have already been made in Pennsylvania, though there is little need in that state of a state public school for dependent children, on

account of the efficient work of the children's aid society. The increasing amount of the state subsidies to private orphan asylums and children's homes in Pennsylvania¹ affords, however, a plausible argument for the establishment of a state institution of this character. Indiana, strange to say, maintained her soldiers' orphans' home and her school for the feeble-minded in the same buildings and under the same management until 1885, when they were separated.

**The County
Children's
Home System.**

Some fifteen years before Michigan established her now famous state public school for dependent children, a kind-hearted woman, who had been touched by the forlorn condition of the twenty-six children associated with adult paupers in the Washington county (Ohio) almshouse, established, under her personal direction, a small home for children on a farm ten miles from the city of Marietta. The county commissioners placed the children from the poorhouse under her care, paying her a per capita rate of \$1 per week for their maintenance. With a view to securing similar care for children in the other almshouses of the state, a bill was presented to the legislature of 1864 authorizing counties to establish homes for children. These homes were to be wholly apart from almshouses and under the control of boards of trustees appointed by the county commissioners, and

¹ All these items were vetoed by the governor, after the last legislative session, on account of an impending deficit.

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supported by public funds. The bill became law in 1866.

Subsequently, the state board of charities exerted a powerful influence in behalf of the establishment of such homes, with the result that from 1866 to 1890 fifty were established. The placing-out system was not recognized as an important feature of the original plan; very likely because the good woman through whose influence the bill was framed had been drawn into the work through observing the cruelty to which an orphan child who had been placed in a family of low character was subjected. The county homes varied much in the extent to which they placed out children, but only one or two of them undertook such work extensively. In 1893 only two of the county homes employed visiting agents, though several placed out children through private agencies.

According to a report compiled by the secretary of the state board of charities of Ohio in February, 1893, the forty-six county homes had accommodations for 3,522 children. The total number of children received since the establishment of the system was 15,290; of whom 4,973 had been placed in families by adoption or indenture, 3,817 had been returned to parents or guardians, 425 had died, and 2,158 remained in the homes February 13, 1893. The remaining 3,917 are not accounted for. The average length of time the children were kept in the county homes was about two years and two months, as compared with about one year in the Minnesota state school and six months in the Michigan school. One county home

reported an average retention of children for ten years, one seven years, one five years, one three years, two seven months, one six months, and one four months. No reports are given of the placed-out children who remained under the oversight of the homes, and probably only fragmentary records are kept of the children after they are placed out; certainly there is no uniform system of supervision for such children. In Ohio, therefore, the county system has proved to be seriously lacking in securing uniform and effective action by the various local authorities.

In Connecticut a number of persons who had been active in the establishment of a private home for children caused a bill to be introduced in the legislature of 1882 prohibiting the retention of children in almshouses. The bill failed of passage, but a commission was appointed to inquire into the subject. Upon the recommendation of this commission a law was passed in 1883 authorizing the establishment in each county of a temporary home for children, and such a home was opened in each of the eight counties of the state before January 1, 1898. The homes have, in each case, been removed from the sites first chosen, and their management has undergone at least one radical change. The present plan provides that each county home shall be managed by a board, consisting of the three county commissioners, one member of the state board of health, and one member of the state board of charities. Admission is by the selectmen of a town, in which case the child is a town charge, or by a formal commitment by a justice of the peace, judge of probate, or judge of a city or police court, in which case the child becomes a ward of the state, the guardianship

being vested in the board of managers of the home and the expense of maintenance being borne by the state. While a majority of the boards of managers of the homes are county officials, the expense is borne very largely by the state, the remainder being paid by the towns. The state board of charities is authorized to recommend to the boards of managers suitable family homes in which children may be placed, and is authorized to visit children who have been placed out. Two agents are employed by the state board of charities for this purpose. Under this plan of a divided responsibility, and of a number of local institutions, it is not strange that the numbers of children have increased rapidly. One county home, to relieve overcrowding, has for three years boarded a number of its younger children in families with satisfactory results. One county, after maintaining a home in two different locations, accepted the offer of a private asylum, and for the past ten years the children have been boarded in this asylum by the county board of management, at the rate of \$1.50 per week. The 4,746 children received from the opening of the homes to September 30, 1898, are thus accounted for:

Remaining in county homes, September 30, 1898,	728
Placed in families,	2,359
Returned to friends (relatives),	1,616
Placed under care of clergymen,	159
Placed in other institutions,	323
Recalled by selectmen,	91
Died,	80
	<hr/> 5,356
Duplicated in above reckoning,	610
	<hr/> 4,746

In addition to the county home system, the town of Norwalk maintains a home for children in a building formerly used as a town almshouse, and several towns board children in private asylums. An official

report recently states in regard to the county temporary homes: "It is very difficult to preserve their temporary character, and the number of children in the homes increases steadily year by year." In 1898, at the instance of one of the city boards of charity, the legislature authorized the retention of children in almshouses until four years of age, instead of two years, as formerly. This was done to prevent overcrowding in one of the county temporary homes, but it was a serious backward step.

Indiana, in 1881, authorized boards of county commissioners to establish orphans' homes, which were to be placed under the immediate charge of matrons. Boards of unpaid visitors were to be appointed, but no form of actual control was provided except by the county commissioners and the matrons. Subsequently, under legislative authority, the commissioners intrusted the management of the county children's asylums to "local associations." In 1896, there were county homes for children in forty-three of the ninety-two counties of the state. No statistics concerning the operations of these asylums prior to 1896 are available. The constant increase in the number of children led to a movement in 1897 to establish a state school for dependent children; the actual result, however, was a system of state supervision of the county institutions, and the establishment of a state placing-out agency under the state board of charities. The agent of the state board began by visiting the county homes and enlisting an interest in the placing-out system. He is authorized to visit children placed out from county homes and to remove children from county homes, and place them in families. At the end of the first two years' work of the state agent two hundred

and eight children were removed from families and placed in institutions. The number of children placed in families increased from one hundred to two hundred. The remaining children were placed in asylums on a basis as compared

In some states the law is enforced in such instances of children under public care, such as in Pennsylvania, one in ten others.

The advantage claimed for the system is, that it is the best of the counties; that the children are to be benefited; and that they can be kept more home-like in institutional surroundings.

As a matter of fact, it has clearly shown a system possible, except that the law aroused is wise in regard to methods, and that the large institutions pride. A number of institutions show an almost increase in the number become public much more children for causes; the conformity and of the various

and eight children placed by him in families remained under his supervision. The county homes had also increased the number of children placed in families from about five hundred per year to about seven hundred. The number of children remaining in the county orphan asylums on April 1, 1897, was 1,514, as compared with 1,554 in 1898.

In some states in which no system is enforced by law, there are isolated instances of county orphan asylums under public control. There are two such in Pennsylvania, one in Maryland, one in New York, and possibly others.

The advantages that have been claimed for the county system are, that it enlists the interest of the best citizens of the various counties; that it avoids sending the children to a distance (a doubtful benefit); and that the institutions can be kept smaller and therefore more homelike, and are less likely to institutionalize the children.

As a matter of fact, experience has clearly demonstrated that the system possesses none of these benefits, except, possibly, the first, and that the local interest which is aroused is more enthusiastic than wise in regard to child-saving methods, and tends to the upbuilding of large institutions as a matter of local pride. A number of children's institutions scattered over a state have an almost irresistible tendency to increase the numbers of children who become public charges; parents are much more likely to part from their children for unworthy or insufficient causes; the management lacks uniformity and efficiency; the officials of the various homes are less expert

than those of state institutions. The results are shown by comparison of the numbers of children cared for under the state and county systems in adjoining states in which conditions are similar. Ohio has one child a public charge to every 1,836 of the population; Indiana has one to every 1,410; and Michigan only one to every 13,168. Connecticut has one dependent child a public charge in every 1,025 of the population; Rhode Island only one to 2,522. (In each case the census of 1890 is used for general population.) The argument that county institutions are smaller and more homelike than state institutions falls to the ground in view of the fact that the leading state institutions are on the cottage plan, and also because the state institutions are but little larger than a number of the county institutions. In fact, one of the county temporary homes of Connecticut is larger than the state institution of Michigan, Wisconsin, or Rhode Island, while two other Connecticut county homes and three of the Ohio county homes are nearly as large as any of the three state institutions above mentioned.

The weakness of the county system is further shown by the fact that both Connecticut and Indiana have already established state agencies for removing the children from the county institutions and placing them in families. The influence of the Ohio state board of charities is constantly exerted to secure more extended placing-out from county homes. It has been doubtful, how-

ever, whether a state placing-out agency can ever overcome the disadvantages of local control.

It is not too much to say that the

county children's home system has been fairly and fully tried, and has been found wanting.

[To be continued.]

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